

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

## A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Volume LV

\*

MAY 1947

\*

Number 5

### Educational News and Editorial Comment

\*

#### THE FUTURE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

IN AN address delivered in Atlantic City on March 1, 1947, before the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at the first annual meeting held since 1941, Commissioner John W. Studebaker predicted that the high schools of the future will achieve the ideal of secondary education for all. At the present rate of progress it is safe to expect, he declared, that the number of normal youth of high-school age who will eventually be studying in secondary schools will closely approach 100 per cent. This of course he does not expect to happen in five years, but perhaps in twenty years. The Commissioner said:

Within a very few years our high schools will be geared to give service in both vocational and general education. As to the vocational phase, I predict (1) that it will deal with a much broader range of practical arts than it does today; (2) that it will give greater emphasis to mastering technical dis-

ciplines of the various occupational fields and less to the development of the manipulative and other skills; and (3) that it will have substantially more cultural content and value generally than it has today.

In the physical plant there will be shops, laboratories, a gymnasium, a cafeteria, and libraries. But the classrooms in our future building will not be chopped up into so many standard-sized cubicles, each seating 30-40 students. Instead, there will be several large classrooms similar to the present lecture-rooms of our colleges and universities and accommodating one or two hundred students or even more. Such classrooms will be equipped with radio and sound equipment, with projection devices for educational films, filmstrips, and pictures. And, like the smaller classrooms, they will be provided with quantities of textbooks, supplementary library books, workbooks, and other instructional aids for the use of students.

There will be at least two or three different kinds of teachers, with different functions. First of all, there will be the skilled and experienced teachers—let us call them "master" teachers—who will be in charge of the larger classrooms, comfortable rooms, well-ventilated, acoustically treated, and thoroughly equipped with the scientific aids mentioned.

The second type of teacher will be the junior teacher—a full-time, inexperienced teacher straight from college. Third, there will be the apprentice teacher—similar in status to the practice teacher in the Junior or Senior year of college today. The apprentice-teacher system, to be successful, however, must provide adequate numbers of qualified trainees working much of their time in intimate relationship with master-teachers. The duties of the junior teachers and the apprentices will be to assist the master-teachers.

The rural high school of the future will be achieved by such means as (1) a sound and comprehensive system of rural-school consolidation, (2) improved transportation, (3) subsistence scholarships, and (4) the use of some high-school facilities in near-by urban areas, or in regional high schools or institutes.

The high school of the future will provide plenty of opportunity for counseling and guidance. This will be the spacious avenue that goes between the school and the home, the teacher and the parent. Such an avenue will be built to invite and maintain two-way traffic.

Teachers will be paid very much better salaries than they are now paid. They will, of course, be employed on a twelve-month basis, with adequate provisions for vacation periods. Junior teachers and apprentices may advance from a respectable minimum salary through various gradations to the top positions. These top positions would be filled by career teachers of proved capabilities and genuine talent.

Citizens and teachers want children to have the best possible education. They want a sound America. Our school program and our school needs must be interpreted to parents, to all of America. We are not working in an abstract mental laboratory; we are working with boys and girls who are destined to grow up in a ruthlessly realistic world. We have the duty of making certain that every single one of our home communities understands this. The needs of the times demand it.

#### IMPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals, which has been active in recent years in the study of curriculum problems, presents in the issue of its *Bulletin* for March, 1947, a report of its committee on Curriculum Planning and Development dealing with the common and essential needs of youth in a democratic society. The report is in reality a nation-wide survey of significant contributions to the curriculum by leading schools throughout the United States. The committee invited leaders in secondary education to designate schools which have made contributions with respect to one or more of the following imperative needs of youth.

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of a citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation, and of the world.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work co-operatively with others.

10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.

More than a thousand schools were listed by the leaders consulted, and all these schools were invited to co-operate in the study by submitting curriculum materials, outlines, plans, and reports. These were analyzed, classified, summarized, and synthesized by the committee in light of the significance of their contributions to the satisfying of the ten imperative needs. For example, the contributions considered under the first "imperative need" were drawn from forty-eight secondary schools in thirty states and the District of Columbia. The contributions are discussed under the following subheads.

A. The curriculum provides experiences to help students understand the world at work.

B. Students who must go to work on completion of high school are able to develop salable skills through the study of vocational

subjects and through co-operative part-time work programs.

C. School and community service projects enable students to know their community, to learn to work effectively with others, and to gain satisfaction from contributing to the welfare of the group.

D. Part-time, Saturday, and summer jobs, well supervised, give students opportunities to become productive participants in economic life.

E. The school encourages parents to give their boys and girls work experience in the home.

F. An adequate guidance program enables each student to discover his needs, abilities, and interests in relation to employment and vocation demands.

G. The work-experience program is a recognized and accredited part of the school.

The discussion of each of the "imperative needs" is supported by illustrations of successful practices of schools reporting contributions in the particular curriculum area. The committee concludes, on the basis of the contributions considered, that the provisions being made for youth in many of the schools are worthy of commendation. However, the committee warns that the many schools not reporting need to prod themselves educationally to provide for all their youth, and that all schools would profit by checking their objectives and practices against these findings.

#### CURRICULUM PROBLEMS IN THE SOUTH

THE Commission on Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has given consideration to the problem of reconversion which it faces in postwar education in

the South. During the war years its activities, as all activities of the Association, were held to a minimum. A great many of the recent contributions have been necessarily related to the war effort. During this time, however, the chief undertaking of the Commission—the Southern Study—was completed. This major undertaking resulted in a number of significant reports by individual schools participating in the study and a final report by the staff (prepared by Frank C. Jenkins, Druzilla C. Kent, Verner M. Sims, and Eugene A. Waters and published in the February and August, 1946, numbers of the *Southern Association Quarterly*).

In normal years the completion of a major study of this kind would have resulted in a great deal of discussion, interest, and action by a number of schools and colleges as the findings were reviewed and evaluated. This opportunity for the maximum realization of the findings and values of the Southern Study may be irretrievably lost as one of the intangible casualties of the war. Certainly all that can be done to retrieve that opportunity should be the concern of the Commission and of the colleges and secondary schools which compose the Southern Association.

The emergence from the war and the completion of the Southern Study bring the Commission to the point of rethinking, planning, and formulating its long-time, continuing program of service to and through the colleges and schools composing the Southern Association. The Commission is con-

cerned that it shall meet its responsibilities, that it be ready to perform those research and service functions for the Association which it may have to do, and that it shall fulfil the role in southern education which peculiarly belongs to it as a regional agency. In other words, the Commission is concerned that its reconversion be in terms of the mission which it should undertake and of the contribution which it should make to education in the South.

The problem of reconversion is a matter of concern to other groups—as associations, commissions, committees, councils, and societies—interested in various educational programs and problems of the South. The Commission believes that a necessary step in the reconversion is an effective mobilization of all regional educational agencies in order that a concerted co-operative attack may be made upon the problems which must be solved in this region.

The Commission has given consideration to this opportunity with a view to more effective correlation of the activities and programs already in progress with its own. Conversely, it was felt that any assistance it could provide in the way of encouraging more effective co-ordination among the regional programs of education would meet with a ready response.

Accordingly, the Commission has arranged for a co-ordinating agent and office to be maintained as a part-time representative of its Executive Committee. This office began to function on January 4, 1946. The first instruc-



tion to the agent was that a brief survey be made of the regional groups which are at work on educational problems, research, and studies in the South and that a report be made to the Commission. That report, entitled "A Roll Call of Southern Educational Groups," has been completed, and copies are available upon request to the co-ordinating agent, E. F. Hartford, University of Kentucky, Lexington 29, Kentucky.

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION IN GREAT BRITAIN

THE New Education Act of Great Britain, passed in August, 1944, by a coalition government, was held by Edith A. Ford, chairman of the British Committee for the Interchange of Teachers between Great Britain and the United States in an address on March 1, 1947, to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, to be the greatest education act in British history, not excluding the great acts of 1870 and 1902. Miss Ford described education under the new program as follows:

Under the act, a minister heads up the department with a board known as a Ministry. Three stages of education are recognized: primary, secondary, and further education. The Local Education Authorities are the responsible bodies for the carrying-out of the provisions of the act in their areas. There are now 146 responsible Local Education Authorities (62 counties, 83 county boroughs, and one joint board representing the areas of a county and a borough) in England and Wales, against 315 previously. The old arrangement, whereby the Ministry of Education and the Local Education Authorities share not only the responsibility but also the

cost of the statutory provision of education, is to continue and, for the present apparently, on a financial basis of roughly 55:45.

Independent schools are to remain side by side with the national system of education, but eventually, when this part of the act is taken in hand, they must all register with the Ministry and be open to inspection, and provision is made for the elimination of the unsuitable and inefficient.

The most important educational changes here envisaged are in the realm of secondary education for senior pupils, that is, boys and girls over the age of eleven and under the age of nineteen. In future secondary education is to be compulsory for all children, and it is to be free. This is the great step forward; this with all its implications is the educational revolution. The term "secondary," hitherto attached to a type of school, is by the new act transferred to a stage of education. There are now about a half-million English and Welsh children in secondary education; this must become some three million in the future. Until the New Education Act came into force, only some 10 per cent of the children of England and Wales proceeded to secondary education; some 9 per cent to grammar schools (including high) with an academic tradition and an almost exclusively academic curriculum; and less than 1 per cent to junior technical, commercial, or art schools.

All this is now to be changed. There are to be no more elementary schools. Education, one continuous process, is to be (1) *primary*, up to the age of eleven (including nursery, infant, and junior schools); (2) *secondary*, for all children from eleven to fifteen or older; and (3) *further* education, whole or part-time for adolescents and adults. And the school-leaving age is to be raised on April 1, 1947, from fourteen to fifteen, a further raising to sixteen being envisaged as soon as conditions make this next step forward practicable.

There will be three different types of secondary schools—secondary grammar, secondary technical, and secondary modern.

The secondary grammar provides a school life of some six or seven years, culminating in a transference of its pupils to the higher studies of the universities. The secondary technical will eventually encompass a five-year course from ages eleven to sixteen and provide basic general educational and social training and, in the later years, some carefully selected biases from the industrial and commercial world and from the world of pure art and industrial design. The secondary modern will provide for the very large majority of children. It will be allowed complete freedom to develop an education and training for the needs of its pupils in their particular environment.

In selecting the pupils for the various secondary schools, there is a tendency now to consider that the detailed records of pupils from the primary schools, the opinions of the primary-school head and assistant teachers, the wishes of the parents and of the children themselves, with perhaps the additional corroboration of intelligence tests, should all be taken into account before the momentous decision is made.

The secondary modern school is interestingly described in later pages of this number of the *School Review* in an article by the Right Honorable Ellen Wilkinson, the late minister of education in England.

#### IN BEHALF OF BETTER SALARIES FOR TEACHERS

FRANKLIN BOBBITT, emeritus professor of education of the University of Chicago, now residing at Waldron, Indiana, in a letter recently published in the *Indianapolis Star*, clarifies the issue confronting state legislatures and school districts generally with respect to better salaries for teachers. His letter is quoted in full.

That teachers [should] be paid an amount that accords with the character of their labors cannot be questioned. There is no other way to attract into the profession the kind of personnel that the labors require. And only as teachers achieve and adhere to the standards of the American way of life can they know what it is, value it, and be filled with an urge to bring the growing generation to those same high and proved standards.

"The teachers should be prompted by higher standards than those of money," we are told. But there are no higher standards. Money is not a thing of value in itself. It is a token of things earned. Money is a house, garden, equipment, furnishings, fuel, clothing, food, motor car, travel, newspapers, magazines, books, theater, radio programs, woods and mountains, seas and land, city and country, meditation in serenity, conversation, worship, leisure for the exhilaration of morning, leisure for the relaxation of evening, and strength and buoyancy for the hours between.

Money is freedom from worry, insecurity, hurry, exhaustion, the narrowing of the view, the blight of the spirit, the fear that paralyzes, the resentments that poison the outlook, and the modes of escape that would destroy our fair land.

Money is but the key that opens the doors into the spacious American way of life. The person who does not want, and who does not vigorously strive to attain, that way of living is not fitted to be a teacher of high-minded Americans. The inspiring forces that stimulate and lead in educative effort do not issue from shriveled and stunted personalities.

Water does not rise higher than its source. The spirit of a population does not rise higher than the sources of its inspiration and awakening in those who lead in the activities of the spirit.

Education is the master-profession. It is the builder of the powers of the men of all other professions. It creates the understandings of the citizens who maintain a free self-co-ordinated social order. It awakens in all

persons the wisdom that guides an enlightened care of the health, a wholesome family life, recreations that daily renew the spirit, the philosophic or religious outlook that maintains hope and courage, and the daily explorations of the mind that build and maintain the ever growing understanding.

Above all others, education is the creative profession. It creates the powers to create the nation's vast production, distribution, and use of our magnificent array of the means of twentieth-century living. It creates the qualities of the men and women that make up the most competent population that our sun has yet shone on. It vastly adds to the worths of men. It enormously adds to the production of their heads and hands.

Those who do the great work earn the great rewards. If they do not receive them, and are consequently unable to maintain the American way of life, there is failure in the high creative sources of everything. The population that does not maintain the sources cannot have the flood of benefits that flows only from those sources.

It may be urged that we here exaggerate the value of the teacher's work. "Are we not," it may be asked, "describing a \$10,000 influence that is bought by the public for \$1,800?" We are describing the \$10,000 influence that, under the present dismal conditions of the world, would be cheap, very cheap, if the public would buy it, co-operate with it, and make it fully operate. We are describing the master-profession that the public ought to have in its employ. If it remains unwilling, it seems, from the evidence of gathering dangers, that we shall soon have to write off our promising American experiment as having failed because of the population's drawing its inspiration and guidance from inferior and murky sources.

Nothing good can be had without paying its full value. Pay the price of shoddy goods, and you will get shoddy goods. Use wisdom in paying for superior goods, and you will get superior goods. Chance sometimes briefly runs otherwise; but this is the law: a dollar will buy a dollar's worth, and ten dollars will

buy ten dollars' worth. If an American citizen thinks he can flimflam the inevitables, he merely proves that he needs to improve the sources of his wisdom.

#### DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDING BY INTERCHANGING TEACHERS

PAUL E. SMITH, of the Division of International Educational Relations, United States Office of Education, holds that the phrase "teacher exchange" has in it something magic which appeals to school people everywhere. Strictly speaking, "exchanges" are somewhat difficult to arrange because of language barriers, differences in salary scales, and school years.

In recent years the term "exchange teacher" has been applied to various programs, an examination of which indicates that no actual exchange is involved. For example, visiting teachers of English from the other American republics are invited to come to the United States to participate in a twofold activity: one period of their stay is devoted to a course in the teaching of English as a second language; another, to visits to school systems where they participate in classes in Spanish, history, geography, and social studies. Teachers from Latin America who wish to practice and observe in special fields of education, such as nursery-kindergarten, agriculture, home economics, and trade and industry, are awarded fellowships for periods of six months and are given special guidance in pursuing their work. Still a third program which comes under the general heading of "exchange teachers" is the op-

portunity for United States teachers of Spanish to go to Mexico City during the summer to attend special Spanish-language seminars which are planned for them. Each successful candidate who attends the seminar is awarded a small maintenance grant.

One exclusively exchange program is the interchange of teachers between Great Britain and the United States. In this activity the United States teacher actually changes posts with the British teacher. During the present school year seventy-four British teachers have exchanged places with seventy-four American teachers.

#### REGIONAL AGRICULTURAL AND TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

AT THE meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in Atlantic City, March 3, 1947, J. Cayce Morrison, assistant commissioner for research in the State Education Department of New York, reported that the state has six agricultural and technical institutes which are well established. Last year the state established, on an experimental basis, five new institutes of applied arts and sciences.

These institutes, supported and administered by the state, are open to high-school graduates. Their curriculums include (1) a basic program for selected arts, technologies, and sub-professions which require technical proficiency not reached in high-school programs; (2) related offerings in arts and sciences; and (3) personal and civic arts designed to further the gen-

eral welfare and understanding of the students.

The curriculums are planned to help youth gain competence for those occupations between the trades and the professions. Ultimately they will prepare for occupations in every field of endeavor—agriculture, business, home administration, industry, public service. They are organized on the principle that "occupational competence and family life, religion, art, government, education are inseparable parts of the organic life of both the individual and society." In the institutes the program of vocational-technical education and of general education are to be co-ordinated both in the individual courses and in the curriculum pattern as a whole. Through this program, New York is attempting to achieve a genuine advancement in the whole concept of post-secondary education.

#### SCHOOL CAMPING PROJECT

THE public-school system of New York City will experiment with camp education in June, 1947, to determine whether some things can be learned more effectively and quickly in the outdoor world than in the classroom. The Board of Education approved the experiment with only one dissenting vote. Joseph D. Fackenthal, vice-president of the board, who cast the opposing vote, said after the meeting that the experiment might set "an unwise precedent."

Under the plan, pupils in a class at Junior High School 118 (Manhattan)

and in a class at Public School 147 (Queens) will go with two specially trained teachers to the Life Camps at Mashipacong, New Jersey. The youngsters will leave for the camps on June 2 and will stay there for about three weeks, to the end of the school term.

The experiment was planned by Elias Lieberman, associate superintendent of the junior high school division; William Jansen, recently elected superintendent of schools; and Mark A. McCloskey, director of community education. In a report to the board submitted by Superintendent John E. Wade, the school official explained that the two classes would include boys and girls, who would have separate quarters in the camps; that parental consent would be required; and that no child would be excluded "for financial reasons or questions of race." The report said further:

Pupils will be given opportunity to meet and solve problems in an environment which stimulates resourcefulness and ingenuity. These problems will be connected with the care of their own shelters and clothing; food, its sources, its purchase, its preparation; sanitation and the conservation of natural resources; the more subtle problems connected with the unselfish consideration of others so necessary to harmonious group life; problems concerning prejudices and fears.

Other than the regular salaries of two classroom teachers who will participate, there will be no expense to the board. The costs will be borne by the children's parents, by the camps, and by the camp committee founded

by Johanna Lindloff, former member of the board.

Persons interested in school camping should read the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* for May, 1947, the major portion of which is devoted to "Camping and Outdoor Education."

#### TESTING IS BIG BUSINESS

THE Educational Records Bureau in its newsletter for February, 1947, reports that an estimate drawn up for *Nelson's Encyclopedia* indicates that approximately sixty million standardized tests were administered to about twenty million persons in the United States in 1944. Military and civil-service use accounted for a large share of this number, of course, but it is estimated that more than twenty-six million tests were given by educational institutions, business firms, and personnel consultants to more than eleven million individuals.

These are large numbers indeed. It may be pointed out that the size of this testing service is equaled only by the size of the responsibility attendant on such wide circulation. Ultimately every test author and publisher is working, like every other worker in guidance, personnel, or education, with human lives. Even a good test can be misused, but the proper use of any test is limited by the reliability and validity of the instrument and by the adequacy of the norms and other standardization data.

The production of a test or test series is a painstaking, time-consuming, expensive procedure. Aims must be set up and outlines written and submitted to authorities in the field; items are written, tried out, and selected; different forms of a test must be equated; norms must be secured from admin-



istration to groups carefully chosen as representative of the population for which the test is designed. Other studies of the test results may follow or precede these final steps.

It is easy to see why this complicated process, so necessary for the protection of the individuals and groups who will take the tests, may also act as a brake on progress. School tests should obviously be revised to keep pace with curricular changes in spite of the costs involved. It is encouraging, therefore, to note that the end of the war and the return of many test technicians to civilian life is accompanied by resumption of test-construction activities. With the new insights furnished by testing in the armed forces and the expanded markets indicated by the figures cited, it is to be hoped that important new tests will soon be available for the "big business."

#### SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS LAUNCH CLOTHING CRUSADE

**S**EVENTY school superintendents, meeting at a luncheon in Atlantic City on March 3, in connection with the convention of the American Association of School Administrators, launched the 1947 Children's Clothing Crusade of the Save the Children Federation. The goal of 2,000,000 pounds of clothing is more than twice the amount raised last year, when the crusade enlisted the support of 1,369,000 pupils in public schools throughout the country and contributed nearly 1,000,000 pounds of clothing for children in America and overseas.

The 1947 National Children's Clothing Crusade will be carried on under the sponsorship of the Federation's National Advisory Committee of School Superintendents, of which W. Howard Pillsbury, former presi-

dent of the American Association of School Administrators, is chairman. Since the National Advisory Committee was organized in 1939 to aid the work of the Save the Children Federation, public schools in the United States have contributed commodities valued at \$5,400,000. The goods collected included 80,000 desks discarded by prosperous schools but still usable in needy rural schools, about 5,000,000 pounds of clothing brought in through public-school Bundle Days, many thousands of books, and 300 tons of food.

Save the Children Federation, with headquarters at 1 Madison Avenue, New York 10, New York, conducts an extensive program in disadvantaged rural areas of eight states and through 125 county committees is carrying on activities for the improvement of the education, health, and welfare of many thousands of rural children. It also is providing American sponsorship for nearly 1,000 schools and 3,000 individual children in war-devastated areas of Europe. The clothing collected will be used in support of the two programs.

#### HEALTHIEST MAN IN THE WORLD

**T**HE American soldier is "The Healthiest Man in the World," it is said in a booklet of that title now being issued by the Army Recruiting Service. The new booklet is being distributed in connection with the campaign to build a completely volunteer Regular Army by July 1, 1947, to meet America's commitments in the

postwar world. America's health standards have risen, and the people are more postwar health-conscious, says the Army, since millions of veterans have returned from the war with a new appreciation of the value of organized health programs.

During the war years, when medical facilities were taxed to the utmost, the death rate from disease in the Army was only about a third of the mortality rates among comparable civilian groups. The dreaded scourge, pneumonia, for example, offered no real threat to the health of the Army. Deaths from pneumonia were only 0.6 per cent, a remarkable improvement over World War I, when twenty-four out of every hundred men stricken died from the disease. During World War II the death rate from all types of disease was less than one man out of every thousand, compared with sixteen per thousand in World War I.

Volunteers enlisting now will have the same efficient health protection provided wartime troops by the Army Medical Department. Not only is the volunteer under the care of some of the nation's finest physicians, surgeons, and dentists, but every measure is taken to insure his well-being, the best of housing, clothing, and food being provided. Recreation and entertainment facilities and religious guidance in all faiths are available at all Army posts and stations. The Regular Army man has every opportunity to become physically, spiritually, and morally "the healthiest man in the world."

#### CONFERENCE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

SCHOOL-BUILDING problems and the curriculum planning which must precede good school-plant development will be the topics of study at the sixteenth annual conference for school administrators at the University of Chicago. It has been estimated that school buildings worth a billion dollars may be constructed annually in the United States for the next ten years. School administrators face an unprecedented need for ideas about school-plant development at a time when neither research nor recent literature on sites and buildings is plentiful. The forthcoming conference is designed to assist administrators with this urgent and practical issue.

The conference will be held during the week of July 14-18, 1947. The first two days of the conference will be devoted to a consideration of the educational program which ought to be provided in modern school systems. In the remaining three days the development of school sites and buildings for modern educational programs will be discussed. Lectures by members of the Department of Education and by visiting specialists in school-plant problems will be given in the forenoon of each day of the conference. Round-table conferences for superintendents, secondary-school administrators, and elementary-school administrators will be conducted in the afternoons.

The conference is open, without

fee, to administrators of public and private schools and to students registered at the University in summer-quarter classes. An evening meeting following a picnic supper is being planned especially for school-board members and their administrative officers. Credit for one-half course may be obtained by attendance at the conference, completion of a list of related readings, passing an examination based on the conference meetings and readings, and payment of a \$25 fee. Individuals wishing copies of the conference program or other information should write to Professor Dan H. Cooper, Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

The general theme of the conference is stated as "Administrative Planning for School Programs and Plants." The topics to be discussed and the titles of addresses are given below.

#### Monday, July 14

##### RECONSTRUCTING THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

1. A Modern Educational Program
2. Better Education in Elementary Schools
3. Better Education in Secondary Schools

#### Tuesday, July 15

##### ADMINISTRATIVE PLANNING FOR SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

1. The Role of the School Administrator in Community Development
2. The Co-ordination of Community Planning and School Planning
3. The Administrator Initiates a School Building Program

#### Wednesday, July 16

##### DEVELOPING PLANS FOR SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND SITES

1. The School Survey as a Basis for School-Plant Planning
2. Landscape and Playground Development of School Sites
3. Translating Educational Need into Building Plans

#### Thursday, July 17

##### IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF THE SCHOOL PLANT

1. The Improvement of School Lighting
2. Interior Decoration in New and Old School Buildings
3. The Influence of State Departments of Education on School Building Construction

#### Thursday Evening, July 17

##### THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF SCHOOL BOARDS FOR PROGRAM AND PLANT DEVELOPMENT

1. The Function of Boards of Education in Program and Plant Development
2. What Board Members Expect of Administrative Plans
3. Prospects for School-Building Construction

#### Friday, July 18

##### FINANCIAL AND PUBLIC-RELATIONS ASPECTS OF SCHOOL CONSTRUCTION

1. Long-Range Financial Prospects in the United States
2. The Cost of School-Building Construction
3. The Public-Relations Background to School Improvement

## SUMMER WORKSHOP

THE summer-quarter program of the Department of Education, the University of Chicago, includes an integrated workshop in the areas of elementary education, human development, and intergroup education.

The section relating to elementary education will be primarily concerned with the curriculum of the schools. The essential purpose of this section of the workshop is to provide the opportunity for teachers, supervisors, principals, consultants, and others having special interests and responsibilities in curriculum to work on their own problems aided by the University's comprehensive resources in this area. This section of the workshop will be in operation for a period of five weeks, June 23—July 25, 1947.

The section of the workshop devoted to the field of human development and education is designed for the professional personnel of all levels, including higher education, and especially for persons who desire to use the findings of research on human development and behavior in their present or prospective professional work. This section of the workshop will be in session for a period of nine weeks, from June 23 to August 23. Persons desiring to participate in the program of this section for a shorter period may register for the six-week term, June 23—August 2.

The section of the workshop concerned with intergroup education is designed to develop the much-needed orientation and craftsmanship in

teaching human relations and in organizing democratic group life in the school and the community. It is offered for teachers, guidance workers, administrators, librarians, and community workers with special interests and problems in the field. This section will be functioning from June 23 to August 2.

Information concerning the program of any section of the workshop and the registration procedure will be sent on application to Mrs. Dorothy Feltham, executive secretary of the University of Chicago Workshop, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

## CONFERENCE ON ARITHMETIC

THE University of Chicago's second annual Conference on Arithmetic will be held on June 30—July 2, 1947. The opening address will deal with the place of arithmetic in relation to the whole program of the elementary school. Other papers will treat the introductory program in Grades I and II; the treatment of fractions, decimals, and per cent in the middle grades; the content of the upper-grade program; and the problem of workbooks and drill materials. One session will be given to a demonstration and discussion of the use of motion pictures in the teaching of arithmetic.

Further information about the conference may be obtained by writing Professor G. T. Buswell, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

## WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

*Authors of news notes and articles* by WILLIAM C. REAVIS,

professor of education at the University of Chicago. The Rt. Hon. ELLEN WILKINSON, late minister of education in Britain, shortly before her death delivered an address on Britain's new education which is reproduced in this article. WILLIAM S. GRAY, professor of education at the University of Chicago, presents a discussion of the social effects of reading, in which he reviews many of the past studies which have been made along these lines. EDWARD LANDY, director of guidance at Montclair High School, Montclair, New Jersey, considers the question of providing education for occupational competence at the high-school level. M. M. CHAMBERS, assistant director of the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs, under the auspices of the American Council on Education, analyzes the good points of the armed services training program. S. V.

MARTORANA, assistant director of research for the American Association of Junior Colleges, discusses terminal education at the high-school level and its implications for the general educational program. ANNA TRAUBERT, teacher of the social studies at Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, describes a realistic program of study for girls in a vocational high school. The selected references on educational psychology have been prepared by MANDEL SHERMAN, professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago and LEE J. CRONBACH, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago.

*Reviewers of books* NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago. JAMES H. MAILEY, formerly a teacher in the public schools of Billings, Montana, and now a graduate student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago.



## THE NEW LEARNING<sup>1</sup>

RT. HON. ELLEN WILKINSON

\*

WE IN Britain are just beginning a new epoch in education. We are trying out a great many new ideas, and I'm very anxious, as minister in charge, that we should get on the right lines.

This statement doesn't mean that I think that our state education has been along entirely wrong lines up to now. It can be said of the British elementary school, even in those dim ages before the Hadow Report, that, what it did set out to teach, it taught pretty thoroughly. In the elementary school which I attended in Manchester we learned to spell, to write legibly, and to do simple arithmetic in our heads—and, believe me, those are techniques not to be despised even in these days.

But how they were drilled into us! I remember vividly the hard, heavy desks for two, in which we had to sit with very straight backs, eyes front, and no talking to your neighbors. When I go visiting schools these days, I'm thrilled when I see that a live local education committee has managed to get little tables with separate chairs that can easily be pulled around for group activities—while, if one of our desks was as much as an inch out

of line, it was regarded as almost a crime. But let's not blame the teacher. As a result of too large classes and unsatisfactory buildings, discipline has had to be altogether too rigid.

There has been a big change in these conditions, even in the last few years. When I was visiting schools in Sheffield recently, I met a young sergeant pilot who had been in the R.A.F. for six years and had come back to his teaching job in a junior school. "Do you see much difference between the scholars now and those you had before the war?" I asked.

"Rather," he said quickly, "the discipline is so much freer. These youngsters put their hands in mine as we go out together, and we're pals. Before the war they'd all have marched in a line."

You know it's difficult to loosen up in adult life, to be natural and easy in manner, if you have been too rigidly disciplined as a child. A young art master gave me a novel illustration of this maxim. I was visiting Alnwick Castle where the Duke of Northumberland has given us a big wedge of his home to use as an Emergency Training College. I admired some colored patterns that had been done by students. The art master said that the most difficult thing was to get students who had had only the copying

<sup>1</sup> Miss Wilkinson, Britain's late minister of education, delivered this address over B.B.C. shortly before her death on February 6, 1947.

type of drawing lesson to take the first step and do a really free, curly scribble from which a pattern could grow. Discipline was no problem with these trainees from the Forces and the National Fire Service. Most of them had gone from the discipline of school to the rigidity of machines and then had had four or five years in the Forces. Most of them were stiff with discipline. What they needed was loosening up. They had to be persuaded to express themselves freely, to relax easily, to think for themselves, and to say what they thought.

The first move of this art master was to set them to do a really easy, casual scribble and then play round it with colored crayons until a pattern grew. "That's easy," you say. Is it? You pick up a pencil and see if it's easy. Most of you will find yourselves doing stiff squares and triangles, or else you'll throw down the paper irritably after two minutes and say, "It doesn't mean a thing." What it will mean is that you're really rather afraid of letting yourself go, even with your own pencil and paper.

You will have read some merry comments in the newspapers about the new pamphlet on *Art Education*\* which the Ministry of Education has just published. Here is a sentence from the pamphlet:

The blue donkey and the six-legged horse are features of a perfectly natural phase of expression and no attempt should be made

to force the child to realistic reproduction which can only curb or destroy his spontaneity.

I'll confess that, when I read the pamphlet in typescript, my blue pencil hovered over that sentence. After all, the child had only to *look* at a horse to see that it has four legs. In quite a number of schools that fact would be emphasized by a sharp tap on the knuckles with a ruler.

Somehow, though, we have to find the technique of educating while letting the child grow. "Don't Fence Me In" is more than a popular song title—it's a cry from the human heart caught up in the rigid machine civilization we have made.

Now all this doesn't mean that the child should be allowed to do exactly as he likes. Some mothers have accepted the idea of freedom without going on to ask "freedom for what?" The child who is given freedom but no idea of self-discipline, of the pleasure of living graciously with his fellows, will grow into a spoiled, unloved, unhappy adolescent.

Here is where the new types of secondary school we are planning can help, if the parents at home will try to understand the idea instead of rejecting it because it's different from the school they went to.

You will have heard about Britain's new schemes of secondary education for all children over eleven, which is the biggest and best part of the education Act of 1944. You know about the secondary grammar schools and the technical schools because these insti-

\* *Art Education*. Ministry of Education, Pamphlet No. 6. London: His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1946.

tutions have been with us for a long time, though in many areas we have nothing like enough of either of them even yet. The really excitingly fresh part is what we have agreed to call the "secondary modern"—a new name which is puzzling people because there aren't many of these schools as yet. In time, however, about two-thirds of the children will be going to secondary modern schools. These will be the schools of the great majority of the citizens of the future. The children will have had their basic groundwork in the primary schools. They will come to the secondary modern school just at that interesting time when their minds are opening, when their curiosity about the funny world they live in should be at its height. It's the question-mark period. "Why does sound come over the wireless?" "Why does electricity do all it does?" "Why does an oak tree grow from an acorn?" Learning the names of the capes and bays of Norway, which was the idea of a geography lesson when I went to school, is no answer to "What makes tides?"

These new secondary modern schools of ours plan to educate the child through his or her interests. Discipline of interest is the most intense and demanding kind of self-discipline. Silence can fall even in a seaside lodging-house on a wet holiday if a rampagous group of children suddenly get interested in something.

I went to see one of these secondary modern schools in Salford, a delightful building on Broughton Road. A class

of boys were working on making small electric motors for themselves. I just slipped into the classroom unnoticed, leaving outside the crowd that usually walks round with the minister. As I stood there, a gay excited voice called out, "It works, teacher. See, it works." The children gathered round while the teacher explained the "hows" and "whys," and the minister of education was just as interested as the twelve-year-olds.

It's a favorite trick in educational circles suddenly to ask a victim to define what the *aim* of education is. I think my favorite definition is "to feel at home in the world we live in." A "tall" order!

This feat may not seem so difficult to us in Great Britain because of the amazing toughness and quiet good sense that the people of this country have shown, both during the war and in the difficult period of reconstruction. I'm not handing out bouquets; those of us who have had to leave Great Britain since the war and have seen what things are like in Europe come back a little awed by the difference—the solidarity and sanity of life in Britain, even the dulness of it, of which we all complain a bit at times. At least the earth seems solid beneath one's feet. There are hope and a chance to look forward.

How different is the Continental scene. Stephen Spender has just written a book called *European Witness*.<sup>3</sup> I have myself seen much of what he

<sup>3</sup> Stephen Spender, *European Witness*. New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, Inc., 1946.

describes, and this is the best account I have yet read of what intelligent Germans are feeling and talking about.

There's a great interest in Europe to see if Britain, in the midst of, and because of, all her preoccupations with her own internal problems of reconstruction can give a lead, give a clue, even, on the absorbing problem of European living. Is it possible to reconcile personal freedom with public planning?

I am sure it is, but I am equally sure that the foundations must be laid in the schools. Education should

awaken children to the great responsibilities of personal freedom, its duties as well as its rights. It should accustom children to the mysteries of science and discovery, so that they feel that here are great creative forces ready to solve the miseries of scarcity and poverty. Marvels to use for the benefit of mankind, not destructive forces to overwhelm us in ruin. Yes, I like my definition of the aim of education—that it should help us feel at home in the world and in the century in which we live—and that I regard as the big job of our "secondary education for all."

## THE SOCIAL EFFECTS OF READING

WILLIAM S. GRAY

University of Chicago

\*

THE wide use of reading, both in school and adult life, reflects confidence on the part of educators and the public that reading can and does contribute to personal development and influence social attitudes and behavior. The fact is recognized, however, that its influence may be either desirable or undesirable. The recent rapid increase in the interest in bibliotherapy is a striking example of the growing confidence in the positive values of reading. Similarly, the vigorous effort, both in and out of school and college, to counteract the effects of propaganda in print is clear evidence of deep concern about the possible negative influence of reading.

Research relating to the effects of reading is of relatively recent origin. In a sense it dates back to 1910, or before, when Thorndike and others began to measure the extent and character of the ideas acquired through reading. However, the fact that a reader has acquired information or understands a principle or guide to action is no guaranty that beliefs, attitudes, and behavior will, *ipso facto*, be modified. In order to be sure that such changes have occurred, it is necessary to measure the effects of reading directly.

During the past two decades, thirty or more scientific studies relating to the effects of reading have been reported. Some of these are concerned with the technical problems involved in measurement in this field. Other studies relate to the specific effects of reading, as determined through controlled experiments. For the purpose of this discussion the studies will be classified under the following headings: (1) information and beliefs, (2) attitudes and morale, (3) public opinion, (4) voting, and (5) crime and antisocial behavior. Another group of studies relates to factors that influence effects, such as predispositions of the reader and the conditions under which the reading is done. The findings of such studies will be introduced at appropriate points in this article.

### EFFECT OF READING ON ACCURACY OF INFORMATION AND BELIEFS

Since print supplies large bodies of information, it is reasonable to assume that it influences, to a considerable extent, the information and beliefs of readers and the accuracy of the statements that they make. If the press, for example, is accurate and precise, it would be expected that the statements and beliefs of readers



would be correspondingly accurate in the areas discussed. If, on the other hand, the press is careless and inaccurate, readers would be correspondingly inaccurate. Unfortunately the objective evidence concerning the extent to which this is true is limited.

A study by Bird<sup>1</sup> throws light on the validity of the foregoing assumptions. His investigation was made possible by "the unwitting distortion by a university newspaper" of certain facts which had been presented the day before in a lecture in a psychology course. Since a test on classwork and assigned readings was to be given shortly, opportunity was taken to prepare questions that would reveal the influence, if any, of the article on the accuracy of the students' information. An analysis of almost five hundred usable test papers showed clearly that the students who had read the newspaper report were consistently less accurate than the students who had not read it.

A closely related study was reported by Seward and Silvers,<sup>2</sup> who attempted to find out "the extent to which people believe what they read in the papers." They centered attention on the acceptance of, or belief in, war news and set up two hypotheses for examination. They were:

<sup>1</sup> Charles Bird, "The Influence of the Press upon the Accuracy of Report," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXII (July-September, 1927), 123-29.

<sup>2</sup> John P. Seward and E. Evelyn Silvers, "A Study of Belief in the Accuracy of Newspaper Reports," *Journal of Psychology*, XVI (October, 1943), 209-18.

1. Other things being equal, one is more likely to believe war news issued by his own government than by the enemy.

2. Other things being equal, one is more likely to believe war news favorable to his own side than to the enemy.

The results of tests given to students showed clearly that the reader's attitude toward, and confidence in, the sources from which the information is received determines, to a large extent, his acceptance or rejection of it.

However, the findings reported should be verified by more carefully controlled experiments and by efforts to secure a broader understanding of the effect of reading on the accuracy of the reader's information and beliefs. Studies are greatly needed, for example, to determine the effect of reading on the accuracy of various types of information and beliefs. The areas that are most or least susceptible to influence and the conditions that are most or least favorable to change merit wide study also. Furthermore, it is important to know the biases and prejudices that play a large role in the acceptance or the rejection of what is read.

#### EFFECT OF READING ON ATTITUDE AND MORALE

Closely associated with the effect of reading on beliefs and accuracy of information is its influence in developing attitudes and building morale. A significant study by Annis and Meier<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup> Albert D. Annis and Norman C. Meier, "The Induction of Opinion through Suggestion by Means of 'Planted' Content," *Journal of Social Psychology*, V (February, 1934), 65-81.

was concerned with the effectiveness of the press in inducing attitudes and opinions. In order to secure objective evidence, a campus paper prepared editorials on W. Morris Hughes, the prime minister of Australia from 1915 to 1923. Content favorable to Mr. Hughes was planted in fifteen editorials and content unfavorable to him in a corresponding number. Three tests were given to the students who participated in the study: (1) an information check test to determine whether Mr. Hughes was known to students; (2) an editorial-opinion test in which the students were asked to judge whether Mr. Hughes would or would not have the beliefs or attitudes summarized in the statement; and (3) a personal-opinion test in which the students were requested to express their personal opinions on statements identical with those which appeared in the editorial-opinion test.

The students who served as subjects were divided into three groups: (1) the students who had read the editorials favorable to Mr. Hughes; (2) the students who had read the editorials unfavorable to him; and (3) a control group who had not read the planted editorials. The editorial-opinion test was given five days after the reading of the last planted editorial, and the personal-opinion test was given two days later. The results showed that "98 per cent of the subjects reading the favorable editorials became favorably biased" toward Mr. Hughes and "86 per cent of the subjects reading the unfavorable edi-

torials became adversely biased." Highly reliable differences were found in the mean scores of the two groups. When the tests were repeated four months later, there were few changes in the results. The investigators concluded that "any newspaper has within it possibilities to build up either favorable or unfavorable opinions by the method followed in this study." The fact should be observed, however, that this investigation was carried on in a situation in which the reader did not bring preformed biases, prejudices, attitudes, or opinions to his reading.

In a study by Allport and Lepkin,<sup>4</sup> the effect of headlines on morale during wartime was considered. A basic assumption of these investigators was that the obligation of the press in wartime goes far beyond the publishing of all the news "accurately and without fear or favor." In addition, it must promote the psychological reactions essential to victory. To determine the possibilities in this connection, the investigators first made an analysis of the headlines of war stories. They were classified into nine types, such as "U.S. Gaining," "U.S. Holding," "Allies Gaining," "Enemy Losing," and "U.S. Losing." A representative series of new headlines was then given to 109 citizens, who were asked to give their reactions to the headlines. A careful study of all responses led to the conclusion that "all war news

<sup>4</sup>Floyd H. Allport and Milton Lepkin, "Building War Morale with News Headlines," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, VII (Summer, 1943) 211-21.

headlines stimulate people to participate in war activities to some extent." Generally speaking, however, "the worse the news reported in a headline, the greater its morale value." These findings support the assumption that the press can greatly influence the attitude of readers. The investigators made the following proposal: "Where there is no conflict with the truth . . . the choice of a headline used on any particular story should be guided by consideration of its effectiveness in increasing morale."

Knower<sup>5</sup> studied the effect of printed statements on changes in the attitude of 328 experimental subjects in two universities. Four statements relating to prohibition were prepared. One on each side of the question was predominantly "a factual and logical appeal," and the other was chiefly "an emotional or persuasive appeal." Scores made on an attitude toward prohibition scale given before and after reading one of these statements showed "statistically significant group changes in attitude" as a result of presenting arguments in printed form. The number who made a significant positive change in attitude was four or five times as great in the experimental group as in the control group.

When the subjects read an argument for, and one against, their previous attitude toward prohibition, more

subjects changed "in the direction of an intensification of their previous attitude . . . than changed in the opposite direction." It is significant that the "emotional appeals produced a greater negative reaction when two speeches were read than did the logical speeches when so presented." These findings show clearly that the reading of argument and emotional appeals may affect attitudes but that the extent and direction of the changes vary with conditions.

Schanck and Goodman<sup>6</sup> attempted "to test the effects of propaganda on both sides of a controversial issue as compared with propaganda on either side alone." The topic discussed was civil service, and the population included Boston high-school students and students from Harvard, Radcliffe, New York University, and Washington, D.C. Preliminary testing showed that the subjects were highly prejudiced in favor of civil service and against patronage. With all groups but one, the pro-civil-service propaganda had a slightly negative effect whereas the propaganda unfavorable to civil service "failed to create any significant change in the direction of patronage." Analysis of the evidence showed that the general effect of propaganda opposed to existing prejudice was not to bias the reader in the opposite direction but "to create conditions of conflict expressed in ignor-

<sup>5</sup> Franklin H. Knower, "Experimental Studies of Changes in Attitude—II: A Study of the Effect of Printed Argument on Changes in Attitude," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXX (January–March, 1936), 522–32.

<sup>6</sup> R. L. Schanck and Charles Goodman, "Reaction to Propaganda on Both Sides of a Controversial Issue," *Public Opinion Quarterly*, III (January, 1939), 107–12.

ance, perplexity, and loss of interest in a question." Propaganda on both sides of an issue had little or no effect on any group, except one, for whom it created "an increase in attitudes of perplexity."

The foregoing studies show that the press is an effective agency for inducing or changing attitudes. "Planted content," headlines, logical and persuasive argument, and propaganda—all proved effective in changing attitudes to a greater or less extent. Favorable rather than unfavorable material proved to be the most effective. Unfavorable news in wartime stimulated attitudes that led to cooperation more than did favorable news. Emotional appeals created greater negative reactions than did logical appeals. Any form of news contrary to deep-seated convictions tended to confuse and perplex. Whereas the evidence presented indicates that there are differences in the effectiveness of the various methods used to influence attitudes and morale, no specific study was made of their relative effectiveness. Furthermore, evidence secured in studies not referred to above is not conclusive concerning the relative effectiveness of listening to the radio and speeches as compared with reading in inducing or changing attitudes.

#### EFFECT OF READING ON PUBLIC OPINION

The effect of print on public opinion is of unusual social significance. Evidence of the extent of its effectiveness

is found in a study made by Berelson<sup>7</sup> during the 1940 presidential campaign of the processes whereby print influences public opinion. The subjects were "two representative groups living in a small midwest county notable for its conformity in opinion to the country as a whole." The information was secured by two professional interviewers at two different times within the final month of the presidential campaign.

Three factors were found to influence the recognition of an argument, namely, its association with a prominent current event, the "cruciality" of the argument, and its "intensity." The dominant factor in agreement was found to be the predispositions of the readers of whom 60 per cent followed their preconceptions and biases, 17 per cent opposed them, and about 23 per cent were undecided. The use of actual content in arguments was found to influence the formation of political judgments in three ways: "it decreases indecision"; "it tends to regulate relative agreement among arguments"; and "it increases agreement." Furthermore, certain characteristics of arguments influence their acceptance or rejection: "old arguments are accepted more than new arguments"; crucial arguments "have a strong tendency toward acceptance by the favored side and rejection by

<sup>7</sup> Bernard Berelson, "The Effect of Print upon Public Opinion," *Print, Radio, and Film in a Democracy*, pp. 41-65. Edited with an Introduction by Douglas Waples. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942.

the opposed side"; and "the statement of the argument in terms of 'personalities' rather than 'issues' appears to bring agreement."

In summing up the influence of the newspaper on public opinion, Berelson stated: "Print is effective in shaping public opinion. Print does reinforce its readers. And, for whatever reasons, print does convert its readers." In the light of these findings, he contended that print must "serve the public interest within the democratic framework." This is best achieved when people acquire through reading or hearing "a clear comprehension of the relevant alternatives in public policy." In harmony with this assumption, he argued for the development of some agency which would keep constantly before the public the various arguments on controversial issues. He further argued that what is "communicated by the best" must also be "communicated to the most."

#### INFLUENCE OF READING ON VOTING

One of the most valid means of determining the effect of print on readers is to study their overt behavior. It has been shown in the previous discussion that reading increases range of information, influences attitudes and political judgments, and may convert persons to new points of view or reinforce their present judgments. It would be natural to assume that print exerts a distinct influence on behavior, particularly on the way people vote. Three

studies have been reported in this field.<sup>8</sup>

Two of these studies showed a marked correspondence between party alignment of newspapers and majority of party vote. The extent to which the newspapers actually influenced votes was not clear, however. One of the studies showed the possibility of securing votes through propaganda. The superiority of "emotional" over "rational" propaganda was also demonstrated. Further experimentation is needed to determine the extent to which votes can be influenced through print, the kinds of issues on which print proves most effective, and the character of the appeal that is most influential in different areas.

#### EFFECT OF CRIME NEWS ON CRIMINAL ACTION

A second type of overt behavior which is often reputed to result from reading falls under the category of crime. The prevailing point of view, as revealed in a poll of public opinion, is to the effect that crime news propa-

<sup>8</sup> a) George A. Lundberg, "The Newspaper and Public Opinion," *Social Forces*, IV (June, 1926), 709-15.

b) Harold F. Gosnell and Margaret J. Schmidt, "Factorial Analysis of the Relation of the Press to Voting in Chicago," *Journal of Social Psychology*, VII (November, 1936), 375-85.

c) George W. Hartmann, "A Field Experiment on the Comparative Effectiveness of 'Emotional' and 'Rational' Political Leaflets in Determining Election Results," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXI (April-June, 1936), 99-114.



gates crime. Newspapers vigorously oppose this view and maintain that the publicity given to crime serves as a deterrent. In an elaborate study in this field Fenton<sup>9</sup> based her conclusions on the results of an analysis of the psychology of suggestion and on two types of evidence: (1) cases in which a cause-and-effect relation existed between crime news and antisocial behavior; and (2) analyses of the amount of space given by newspapers to antisocial news items. The direct evidence secured led to the conclusion that the newspaper accounts of crime lead "to antisocial activity in a number of ways."

[The newspaper account] influences people directly, both unconsciously and consciously, to commit antisocial acts. It also has a more indirect antisocial influence on public opinion during criminal trials through its accounts of these trials and through its partisan selection of evidence; and finally, it aids in building up antisocial standards, and thus in preparing the way for antisocial acts.<sup>10</sup>

Furthermore, the evidence collected "unquestionably establishes the *existence* of suggestion to antisocial activity, and indirectly suggests its *extent*." In view of these findings, Fenton proposed that "suggestive antisocial matter should be excluded from" newspapers.

A critical review of Fenton's study

<sup>9</sup> Frances Fenton, *The Influence of Newspaper Presentations upon the Growth of Crime and Other Antisocial Activity*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1911.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 92-93.

by Highfill<sup>11</sup> led to the conclusion that her quantitative findings are not convincing except as they reveal "an alarming predilection among newspapers for antisocial news." Her qualitative findings, however, are unanswerable, since they show "definite antisocial news culminating in definite antisocial acts." However, Fenton's study does not show the extent of this influence or its importance as compared with other conditions or stimuli that lead to crime. Whereas it has been proposed that crime news be presented in such a way as to reduce crime rather than increase it, the evidence and opinions presented offer little hope that this transformation can really be achieved.

The foregoing discussion justifies the conclusion that reading definitely affects the accuracy of information and the statements of readers, as well as their attitudes, morale, beliefs, judgments, and actions. These, and other, effects of reading indicate that the press has tremendous possibilities for promoting individual development and for determining the direction of social progress. As pointed out by various writers, print should promote individual and public interest within the democratic framework. The skill problem which society faces is to learn how to use print most effectively in achieving worthy purposes and desirable types of change.

<sup>11</sup> Robert D. Highfill, "The Effects of News of Crime and Scandal upon Public Opinion," *Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology*, XVII (May, 1926), 40-103.

#### EFFECT OF ATTITUDE ON CRITICAL READING

Throughout the preceding discussion constant reference has been made to the fact that preconceptions, biases, and attitudes greatly modify the effects of reading. Because of its practical application to the problems faced in high schools, this paper will be concluded with a report of a recent study by Helen Crossen<sup>22</sup> concerning the effect of attitudes of high-school pupils on their critical interpretation of what they read.

The purpose of the study was to discover the relation, if any, "between a pupil's attitude toward a topic and his ability to read critically about that topic." To this end, the attitudes held by ninth-grade pupils toward Negroes and toward Germans were determined through the use of an instrument developed specifically for that purpose. Measures of the mental ability and general reading competence of the students were secured through the use of standardized measuring instruments. Finally, a test of the critical reading of passages about Negroes and Germans was constructed and given to the same pupils. The data obtained through the use of these instruments were then analyzed to determine the effect of existing attitudes on ability to interpret critically.

<sup>22</sup> Helen Jameson Crossen, "Effects of Attitudes of the Reader upon Critical Reading Ability," Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Division of the Social Sciences, University of Chicago, 1946.

The data secured indicate that the critical-reading performance of pupils favorable to the Negroes was not significantly different from the performance of pupils whose attitudes were indifferent to Negroes. Similar findings were secured when comparisons were made of the critical reading of those pupils favorable to, and indifferent to, the Germans. When, however, the critical-reading scores of pupils indifferent to, and of pupils unfavorable to, the Negroes were compared, it was found that the latter group had "a definitely lower mean score on the critical-reading test." It was ascertained also that their lower scores were due neither to inferiority of the group in mental age nor to general reading ability. For the group unfavorable to the Germans no such clear-cut difference in critical-reading performance was revealed. A partial explanation of the difference in the critical-reading performance of the groups unfavorable to the Negroes and the Germans was sought in the nature of the attitudes held toward the two peoples:

In the case of the Germans, the unfavorable attitudes were undoubtedly brought about by events comparatively recent (World War II), and concerning persons far removed from the daily common experiences of the pupils. Attitudes toward the Negro, on the other hand, were in most cases undoubtedly based upon a long-term association which must have inevitably included face-to-face contacts. An unfavorable attitude toward the Negro, therefore, may have had an intensity and sharpness not so char-

acteristic of the unfavorable attitude held toward the Germans.<sup>13</sup>

The conclusion drawn, which is supported by the results of other investigations, is that "the more personal, immediate, or intense the feeling, the greater the likelihood that it will prove a barrier between the reader and an accurate interpretation of the material to be read."

A second question related to the reason for the fact that pupils who had unfavorable, rather than favorable, attitudes made lower scores on the critical-reading test. It was pointed out that the pupils most strongly prejudiced against the Negro may have felt distaste for the topic. This emotion may have been sufficient "to interrupt the smooth functioning of the usual processes of comprehending and interpreting the material read." A second explanation was that the emotional appeal contrary to their

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*

present convictions was stronger in the case of the anti-Negro readers than in the case of the other group. A third explanation was drawn from the findings of other investigators which showed that "propaganda contrary to the attitude held by the reader appeared to lead to irritation and confusion rather than to a changed conviction."

These findings show clearly that the comprehension and the critical interpretation of what is read are definitely influenced by the background of the reader, his predispositions, and, in a sense, his emotional status and motives. It follows that teachers face challenging problems in identifying the causes of poor or wrong interpretation among their students and in eradicating them. Since the factors named influence the accuracy of interpretation in reading, it follows that they influence also the educational and social effects of reading.

## EDUCATING FOR OCCUPATIONAL COMPETENCE

EDWARD LANDY

Montclair High School, Montclair, New Jersey

★

THE past decade has shown violent contrasts in the employment of our youth. At first unwanted, many of them forced by circumstances into makeshift arrangements such as the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration (whatever may have been the values of these organizations, it cannot be denied that they were initiated as temporary agencies to meet an emergency), our youth found themselves to be the most prized commodity of the nation during the past few years. These striking changes demonstrate clearly and forcibly that the opportunities for gainful employment which youth may enjoy are more a function of the economic condition of the times than of any single agency, such as the school.

Nevertheless, the school can, and should, play an important part in the development of occupational competence among our youth. It will be the purpose of this article to show how the past decade has taught us why the school ought to devote itself to this task and to suggest some of the more promising and realistic means for achieving this objective. First, it is necessary to examine the concept of occupational competence.

### QUALITIES BASIC TO OCCUPATIONAL COMPETENCE

Much has been written and said about the need for educating our youth so that they may become successfully adjusted to the world of work. During the past decade a number of studies have been made—state-wide, regional, and local in scope—to show how our youth have fared after leaving school. It is difficult, however, to find in the literature any clear-cut and comprehensive statement of what goes to make up the occupationally well-adjusted youth. Not that there has been any lack of suggestions of criteria for evaluating occupational adjustment (10). Job satisfaction, earnings, amount of employment, realization of goals, and many other measures have been used, but the picture still remains blurred. Perhaps the difficulty lies in the impossibility of measuring occupational adjustment in any clear-cut fashion. Possibly satisfactory estimates can be derived only by use of the clinical method, while most of the studies dealing with the occupational status of youth out of school have been concerned with groups.

The practicing schoolman, however, is faced with the problem of hav-

ing to think in terms of groups of pupils when he tries to formulate a program. Before proceeding further it becomes necessary, therefore, to resolve the difficulty and to establish some basic principles upon which to build a program leading to the possession of occupational competence by our school-leaving youth. From the various studies made and in the light of the experience of the past decade, two main considerations emerge in the concept of occupational competence: (1) the qualities useful in getting and holding a job and (2) the quality of the youth's thinking and behavior as a result of appraising the occupational situation in which he finds himself and in planning for the future.

*Qualities useful in getting and holding a job.*—Occupational studies of the past decade and earlier (2, 6, 9, 11, 13, 14) have unearthed ample evidence to show that the following questions need attention by the school if our youth are to be better prepared to get and to hold jobs.

1. Does the youth know what he can do and what he wants to do?
2. Does the youth know how to go about looking for a job?
3. Does the youth know how to make the best possible impression on the prospective employer in the pre-employment interview?
4. Does the youth have the capacity to get along tactfully and intelligently with his employer and other employees?
5. Does the youth have the ability to adapt himself to new conditions and to learn the job?
6. Does the youth possess sufficient skill to insure employment at the bottom of his chosen field?

All these factors seem to be of importance in getting properly started in military occupations, according to reports emanating from the Army and the Navy, just as they are in civilian life. It would seem, then, that they operate in depression and prosperity, in war and peace. If they are fundamental objectives at which to aim in developing occupational competence (and it is the writer's belief that they are), then the question arises: By examining the experiences of the past decade, what leads may we obtain to help us achieve these aims?

The experiences of the last ten years teach us that there are many aspects of our school programs which need to be changed, improved, and extended if we are to help youth acquire the qualities necessary to get and to hold jobs. Revision of the curriculum, extension and improvement of educational- and vocational-guidance services, and further attention to the general area of developing the well-rounded and well-balanced personality with desirable emotional controls are important facets of the central problem which require attention. Extended discussion of these matters will not be given here, for much has been written about them elsewhere (3, 4, 5, 12).

Among the more fruitful clues to be derived from the past decade may be listed the evolving programs of work experience and technical education. More complete attention will be given to these later in this article.

#### *Quality of appraisal and planning*



*by youth.*—Evidences have been reported that fairly widespread dissatisfaction with their occupational conditions existed among our youth during the middle and late 1930's (1, 9). Dissatisfaction was found to exist among the employed and the unemployed, among the graduates of general high schools and graduates of vocational schools. These dissatisfactions were often vague and not founded in any concrete or specific reasons. Lack of sensible, intelligent planning was also present in large measure.

In a time of turmoil, profound change, uncertainty, and the growth of self-seeking pressure groups, it becomes self-evident that we must make every effort to educate our youth so that they can, both for their own good and for the welfare of the nation, appraise intelligently the occupational situations in which they find themselves. They must, in addition, be able to plan their occupational futures wisely and to act sensibly on any decisions made. This planning may and often will involve change and adjustment.

Here again, certain of the developments in our schools during the past decade offer some assurance of improvement in this phase of occupational competence. Among the more promising of these trends has been the increasing emphasis on work experience.

#### THE YOUTH TO BE SERVED

Any consideration of promising leads or trends in educating for occupational competence not only should

attempt to establish some criteria by which to judge our efforts but ought also to consider the general nature of the pupil population to be served and what their initial job opportunities are likely to be. To do this, we must make an effort to peer into the future. Our projections must, of course, be only tentative, but there are some sound bases upon which to establish them.

The Bureau of the Census (15) recently reported some interesting figures. In 1900 more than 60 per cent of the boys from fourteen to nineteen years of age were gainfully occupied; in 1930 only 40 per cent were gainfully occupied; in 1940 the proportion had dropped below 35 per cent. For girls the proportions were: 28 per cent in 1900, 23 per cent in 1930, and 19 per cent in 1940. Coupled with this decrease in gainful employment of youth has been the enormous growth of our high schools, with the secondary-school population doubling every decade since 1900. This trend was interrupted only temporarily by the war.

An inescapable conclusion concerning the pupil population in the several decades to follow would seem to be that the overwhelming majority of the youth will continue their formal education in the high school or a similar institution. Whatever may be the cause for this—school-attendance laws, socioeconomic conditions, social prestige, etc.—it will be wise to anticipate the resulting situation. Moreover, this group which has shifted into the school from the status of being gainfully occupied is made up, by and large, of pupils who, upon

leaving the secondary school, expect to go directly into employment if it is available. Actually, during the past decade, out of each one hundred pupils entering Grade IX, only about twenty went on with formal schooling beyond high school. We may expect to find in our high schools of the future large proportions—varying, of course, from school to school—of youth who will need to acquire *while in school* those qualities essential for occupational competence.

Just what are the characteristics of this newer group of pupils who will go directly into work upon leaving school? In an excellent summary of various studies in the field, Dodds finds that basically these young people are not significantly different from those youth who tend to go on with further schooling, except in one or two important respects:

Fundamental to guidance in developing a program for educationally neglected boys and girls is recognition of this more limited ability in language skills and their inability to transfer the learning of school situations to the more practical situations of life. This latter difference points to the important necessity of assuring that learning situations in school resemble as nearly as possible situations out of school, so that functional learning can take place [5: 55].

This would seem to point also to the importance of work experience as a method of learning.

#### INITIAL JOB OPPORTUNITIES

Attempting to forecast future job opportunities for our young people now in school is a dangerous task, but, if our planning is to be realistic, we

must give some attention to the problem now. A quotation from Forrest H. Kirkpatrick, director of personnel planning and research for the R.C.A. Victor Division of the Radio Corporation of America, may be helpful:

It is fairly safe to conclude that there will be no boom of job opportunities in new industries in the immediate postwar years. There will be a gradual shift of workers from present work to new plants and industries, but this will be done by retraining and not by throwing the employment gates open to newcomers. There must be work opportunities for the inexperienced worker just out of school, and these will be developed through community resources with aid and direction from government, industry, and education. But the general pattern of work opportunities will not be unduly different in the immediate postwar from the pattern in 1941 and 1942. It is a safe guess that the distribution of workers by occupations for the next five years will stay fairly close to the last U.S. Census distribution [8: 607].

A. F. Hinrichs, acting commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor, supports this view:

By and large, nothing revolutionary ever has happened or ever is going to happen to the development of the occupational pattern in the United States, or in any other country, barring the kind of contingency which we face at the present time in the United States, when we suddenly feel that everything we have ever done is useless. . . . But except for that kind of cataclysmic development, there occurs only a very gradual transformation, year after year, of the fundamental occupational patterns which are based, in the first instance, on those occupations which are necessary to produce the food that we eat, to process the food into forms that are satisfactory to us, to raise the materials that we need for clothing, and to fabricate and

fashion the clothing, and then to move those goods to us through the channels of transportation and distribution.

The basic occupational pattern of the United States that we had before the war, even that we have today, is not an unreasonable guide to those who are trying to get a sense of the proportion in which people should be trained for the various occupations; in fact, this pattern comes close enough to reasonable expectations that I could cite it as one of the certainties from which we may operate [7: c43].

These statements are concerned with patterns or proportions of jobs and not with the possible number of employment opportunities which may be available. At present it seems impossible to forecast the number with any degree of accuracy because of the complex variables involved.

As the Census figures already given would seem to indicate, it is altogether likely that the age at which youth will find opportunity for employment will rise again as it did in the decades preceding the second World War. Accompanying this rise in the job-entering age during the years preceding the war, there was an increasing tendency to postpone specific vocational training. Specific skill-providing, commercial courses were being delayed in the public high schools until Grades XI and XII. The requirement of completion of the ninth grade of general schooling for entrance into the vocational school was rapidly replacing former eighth- and seventh-grade requirements. Post-high-school technical institutes increased, and junior colleges offering terminal courses for occupational training grew greatly in

numbers. Some of these movements had other causes, one of which was the increase of highly skilled technical jobs below the professional level but above that of the skilled workers, but the rising age at which any kind of employment was possible played its important part. The strong likelihood that this trend will be resumed should be carefully considered in the development of occupational training programs, particularly in the case of the newer programs providing for the development of skills at the technical level.

#### A PROGRAM OF DIRECT ACTION

When we take into account the lessons learned about the occupational adjustment of school-leaving youth as shown in the various youth studies of the past decade, the probable nature of the school population during the next decade, and the initial job opportunities which will be open to school-leaving youth, it would seem sensible to advocate a *program of direct action* in educating our youth for occupational competence.

*Real work experience.*—Such a program means that opportunity must be provided for gaining real work experience by all youth who are likely to leave school before, or at, graduation from high school. It is obvious that the work-experience program should be co-ordinated and controlled by the school in order to avoid abuses and to provide a maximum of try-out opportunity which will give insight into what *real work* on a *real job* means.

Any attempt to pin the label of work experience on many kinds of school activities which formerly were known as "projects" or "activities" will result only in a dissipation of the real meaning of, and a disservice to, the work-experience program. The value of these experiences is not to be denied; rather the purpose here is to plead against the habit of "sloganeering"—the curse of educators—and to appeal for exactness of meaning.

The work-experience program should be flexible enough to provide for all possible school-leavers and at various grade levels. The nearer the work-experience program can come to the end of the school career for a given youth, the better. The work-experience program should find its greatest usefulness in the general high school, particularly for pupils following "general" curriculums, but it also should be an integral part of all vocational training—commercial, mechanical, personal-service, or distributive.

*A technical school program.*—One kind of educational program for occupational competence needs special mention. It is concerned with preparation for a growing number of jobs at what might be called the "technical" level. There is an increasing number of jobs which call for a good general education topped off with a substantial post-high-school occupational training. This training does not need to be as long as the four-year engineering programs and usually requires only two years after high school. In view of this development and of the probable

raising of age requirements for job entrance, the trend toward vocational-technical institutes of post-high-school level and toward the provision of terminal education in junior colleges, which was well under way before the war, should be hastened by responsible educators. New facilities are already badly needed. We should plan now for permanent institutions of these types, not wait five or ten years and set them up as an after-thought.

Unless we are willing to learn from the past and to act upon what we have learned, we shall find ourselves unprepared to deal any more satisfactorily with our "youth problem" during the next decade than we did during the 1930's.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. AMERICAN VOCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH. *Occupational Adjustments of Vocational School Graduates*. A.V.A. Research Bulletin No. 1. Washington: American Vocational Association, Inc., 1940.
2. BELL, HOWARD M. *Matching Youth and Jobs*. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.
3. BELL, HOWARD M. *Youth Tell Their Story*. A study conducted for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.
4. BLOS, PETER. *The Adolescent Personality*. For the Commission on Secondary School Curriculum. Progressive Education Association Publications. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941.
5. DODDS, B. L. *That All May Learn*. Bulletin of the National Association of Sec-

- ondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIII, No. 85. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1939.
6. ECKERT, RUTH E., and MARSHALL, THOMAS O. *When Youth Leave School*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.
7. HINRICHS, A. F. "Labor Supply Problems Affect Postwar Planning," *Occupations*, XXI (April, 1943), c41-c45.
8. KIRKPATRICK, FORREST H. "Realism in Postwar Thinking," *Occupations*, XXI (April, 1943), 605-7.
9. LANDY, EDWARD, and OTHERS. *Occupational Adjustment and the School*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXIV, No. 93. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1940.
10. LURIE, WALTER A., and WEISS, ALBERT. "Analyzing Vocational Adjustment," *Occupations*, XXI (October, 1942), 138-42.
11. MAYO, ELTON. *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933.
12. SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. *High School and Life*. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.
13. STEAD, WILLIAM H., and MASINCUP, W. E. *The Occupational Research Program of the United States Employment Service*. Special Publication No. 31. Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1942.
14. STEAD, WILLIAM H., SHARTLE, CARROLL L., and OTHERS. *Occupational Counseling Techniques*. New York: American Book Co., 1940.
15. UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, BUREAU OF THE CENSUS. *The Facts about Youth as Portrayed in the 1940 Census*. Population Series p-3, No. 10. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1940.



## WHAT WAS GOOD IN ARMED-SERVICES TRAINING?

M. M. CHAMBERS

American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.

\*

TO ASSURE a deliberate study of what might be learned from the wartime training of millions of men in the myriad military specialties of modern war, the American Council on Education appointed a Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs nearly two years ago. Under the chairmanship of Edmund E. Day, president of Cornell University, and with Alonzo G. Grace as director of studies, the Commission has already issued five of a projected list of twelve reports.

When two thousand veterans who are now students in colleges and high schools were asked to compare the methods in armed-services training and in civilian schools, most of them expressed general satisfaction with their civilian institutions, but many of them offered pointed criticisms and suggestions (1). A study of the procedures used by the armed services in selecting and classifying their personnel affords positive recommendations for the improvement of aptitude testing, guidance, and policies of student aid (5).

The production, distribution, and use of audio-visual aids to learning were undertaken on an unprecedented scale. An illustrated monograph assesses the fruits of that experience from the viewpoint of transferability

to civilian educational uses (14). Intensive training in modern foreign languages, as accomplished in the Army and the Navy, and the integrated study of selected foreign areas are described in another study, which also sets forth significant changes and experiments now under way in civilian colleges and schools (13). Another separate monograph reports some of the recent history and future prospects of integrated area studies (6).

Further studies which are to appear during 1947 will cover curriculum-making, the training of women, off-duty training and adult education, the improvement of textbooks, vocational-technical education, wartime armed-services-training programs in civilian colleges, and a general summary report of the Commission which will digest these and other related phases, including physical training, health education, and rehabilitation.

Prior to the appearance of these reports, two studies of several aspects of the subject were reported in 1946. One of these is the result of a summer tour made by an organized group of Michigan educators to a number of armed-services-training installations (17). The other report was prepared locally by a special committee appointed by the superintendent of schools of New York City (18).

There is also a considerable literature of the subject in the educational periodicals, beginning about 1944. Brief discourses have been published by many educators who have had varied vantage points of observation. The present article contains a composite of comments coming from a dozen states and institutions from coast to coast and derived from their authors' experiences with parts of the wartime training programs of the Army, the Navy, and the Army Air Forces.

#### STATEMENTS OF EDUCATORS

*No legerdemain.*—All persons reporting agree that the armed services were in a markedly favorable position with respect to resources of money and personnel, clarity and immediacy of aims, motivation of students, and authority. The enormous asset which the armed services possessed in the tenth-grade average education of all enlisted men and in the substantial proportions of high-school, college, and graduate-school products, was recognized everywhere. While there is much value to be drawn from the wartime training experience, there is nothing mysterious or shockingly novel about it. Edgar Dale, of Ohio State University, believes that schools can teach the G.I. way. He writes, "The G.I. way was developed by school people" (4: 120). W. A. Cram, of Portland, Oregon, public schools, asserts, "The so-called 'novel' ideas which have been credited to the G.I. method are nothing more than the

best ideas which our educators have been developing for some time" (3: 284). No one in the armed services disputes these impressions.

*Clear aims.*—Arthur S. Postle (15), of the University of Cincinnati, noted that the Navy V-12 courses of instruction were specific and purposeful, without eliminating liberal arts subjects. Ralph W. Tyler, of the University of Chicago, observed that the armed services generally emphasized the reasons for things taught (19: 499).

Edgar Dale (4) saw that the courses for Army Air Forces flexible gunners were continually revised to keep them abreast of new lessons learned in combat; and similar observations produced Tyler's emphasis on "the need for constant re-examination of the content of education to see that it is directly related to our objectives" (19: 502).

*A curriculum that meshes consistently.*—Eldon L. Johnson praised the precision of some of the Army Air Forces pre-meteorology curriculums, wherein a student "could apply today in physics what he learned only yesterday in mathematics" (11: 116). Carl Haven Young (20), after experience with physical education in a Navy pre-flight school, concluded that the public schools' physical-education programs can benefit by the improvement of sequences of activities as well as by the expansion of content. Floyd W. Hoover (10), of the University of Wyoming, praises the scheme of learning to speak a foreign language first

and allowing reading skill to follow. William Frauenfelder (8), of Bard College, shares this opinion and adds commendation for the study of a land and its culture concurrently with the study of its language, as in the well-known area and language programs.

*Mastery within a reasonable time.*—Hoover (10) advised the abandonment of the conventional, leisurely style in favor of a realistic determination to achieve a certain standard within a specified time; and Frauenfelder, speaking of foreign language in high school and college, bluntly declared, "The former 'dribble' method of three-hour-a-week courses must be scrapped and courses with daily class hours substituted" (8: 124).

Johnson noted that, although 25 per cent of the pre-meteorology students were eliminated for academic failure, the course was not too strenuous for the remaining 75 per cent and did not preclude extra-curriculum activities or impair the health of those students who were able to succeed (11: 115).

Postle asked Navy V-12 graduates for criticisms of their experience. He expected some complaints concerning the rigors of the course but found that half the students recommended more rigorous and authoritative discipline, rather than less. "Joe College," said Postle, "was not among the V-12's" (15: 410).

*Selection of students.*—D. S. Brainard believed the success of armed-services training again proved that "going to college or university should

have more relationship to the ability and desire of the student than to the financial standing of the parent" (2: 352). Tyler (19) and Postle (15) both emphasized the fact that in a democratic society there is great value in basing the selection of students solely on their qualifications to succeed. The same view was held by Major General Walter L. Weible (16: 22), director of training for the Army Service Forces, who said, "There are tremendous resources of talent possessed by younger people who have had no opportunity to secure advanced training." He concluded that the experience of the armed services proved both the feasibility and the necessity of a national scholarship system.

*Testing of achievement.*—Objective evaluation of both physical and academic achievement at frequent intervals was deemed a significant feature of the success of the armed-services programs as observed by Tyler (19), Postle (15), and Hoover (10). Hoover considered that nation-wide uniform testing, under a central examining board, possibly might not be as stultifying as is sometimes feared. He did not advocate this kind of system for all school courses or levels but illustrated his point by suggesting that "the principles and practices of auto mechanics are about the same in Peoria as they are in Syracuse" (10: 353).

*Elimination and classification.*—Unquestionably, much is gained by making the students' continuance in a

class conditional on their ability to succeed. Weible said, "We don't wait until the end of the course to flunk a soldier who's failing. We transfer him immediately when he is unable to keep up" (16: 22). Postle (15) also pointed out that failures were quickly eliminated. He explained further that these individuals were promptly reclassified and placed in some other activity which was less rigorous academically, where they had a fair prognosis of success. Classification of personnel was a continuous process, which followed each man in the armed services through his career. His successes and failures were noted and were taken into consideration in guiding his transfer to a post of maximum usefulness.

*Small classes and individual instruction.*—Dale (4: 119) found that, contrary to uninformed opinion, armed-services instruction was not often given to large, regimented masses of men. Great pains were taken to assure that the groups were kept small when close contact between the student and the instructor or between the student and the materials was necessary. Moreover, supplementary voluntary evening classes were often open to individuals who desired to attend them. Frauenfelder unequivocally declared that in colleges and high schools "language classes must be reduced in size and teaching staffs of language departments increased" (8: 124).

*Selection and training of teachers.*—Dale reported that gunnery instructors for the Army Air Forces were

chosen from among the men whose scores on the Army General Classification Tests were in the upper fourth. These men were given a month of specific and intensive instructor-training just prior to undertaking instructional duties. They had intelligence, experience, special training, and prestige among their fellows (4: 119). Tyler observed that both short refresher courses for instructors and in-service courses taken concurrently with their work occurred generally throughout the armed services. He emphasized the idea that constant training and retraining of instructors in service is a practice which might well become more extensive in civilian education (19: 501).

*More and better teaching aids.*—

Dale (4) concluded that, in civilian schools, textbooks, especially in psychology and methods of teaching, are often overloaded with principles that are inadequately illustrated by interesting examples. Warmth and personality are too often eliminated. Colleges and school systems should produce more of their own teaching materials. The armed services have, to a large extent, produced their own textbooks, instructors' manuals, and visual aids. These materials were prepared by instructors and supervisors whose knowledge was fresh and firsthand, with the assistance of national experts called in to assist, for example, the editor of *Fortune* who worked on the *Gunner's Information File*, a loose-leaf textbook.

Many educators have remarked the

abundance and variety of auditory and visual aids used in the armed services, and all of them agree that these aids played significant roles in the success of the training programs. Walter H. Magill (12), of the University of Pennsylvania, is practical in his suggestion that ways should be found to put at least the surplus motion-picture projectors into the hands of the public schools promptly. However, he is skeptical enough to remark that educational films are "useful . . . when adroitly used but . . . can be great wasters of time and creators of boredom" (12: 140). This statement is not made, of course, to disparage the potentialities of the educational film; it is an argument for intelligent employment of this aid.

R. C. M. Flynt (7: 2) of the United States Office of Education has written, "The armed services have utilized devices and materials to render more effective the application of almost every known educational principle, and to further almost every known instructional objective." He reported an estimate that the quantity of audio-visual aids created by the Army and Navy since 1940 is six times the quantity of similar materials created for use in civilian education in all earlier years. The augmented "know-how" of producing and utilizing these aids, as well as the surplus materials themselves when they are applicable to school curriculums, should be made available to civilian education.

*Implementing the implications.*—Tyler makes the terse statement that

"effective training programs require adequate support" (19: 502). Cram (3: 284-85) also states, "Application of the good features of G.I. methods to the public schools will take tremendous funds for operation, equipment, and salary; it will take the best of our citizens for teachers; it will require the highest priority in peace and will be our best preventive of war." He believes that the success of the armed-services-training programs proves that "trained educators, given proper support and proper aids, can set up a system of education far superior to anything the public schools have been able to do." He asks, "Why not try the same procedure in the public schools?"

Dale says: "It will cost more money. It will require better trained teachers. It will require a richer variety of teaching materials. It will require a reorganized curriculum" (4: 121). Brainard (2: 352) agrees that better school support to obtain the best equipment is necessary and urges state and national support for higher education to diminish the cost to the individual. Hoover (10: 354) points out that "typical local school districts, even consolidated ones, simply do not have the financial resources at their command to embark upon a program resembling that of the armed forces' schools." In his opinion, more substantial state and federal support is the only answer.

The words of Thomas H. Greer (9: 229), of San Diego State College, in the course of his cogent story of in-



structional experience in a large pre-flight school of the Army Air Forces, make an apt conclusion: "The war has driven home many hard facts. A modern Army and Air Force must have trained men. We have stopped at nothing in order to give them the best training in the world. Why should we do less in educating youth for democracy?"

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. *Opinions on Gains for American Education from Wartime Armed Services Training*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.
2. BRAINARD, D. S. "Impact of G.I. Methods on Civilian Instruction," *Minnesota Journal of Education*, XXIV (May, 1944), 351-52.
3. CRAM, W. A. "The Schools Originated the G.I. Way," *School Review*, LIII (May, 1945), 281-85.
4. DALE, EDGAR. "Can Schools Teach the G.I. Way?" *Journal of Education*, CXXVIII (April, 1945), 119-21.
5. DAVIS, FREDERICK B. *Utilizing Human Talent*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947.
6. FENTON, WILLIAM NELSON. *Area Studies in American Universities*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947.
7. FLYNT, R. C. M. "Use of Training Aids by Army and Navy," *Higher Education*, II (September 1, 1945), 1-3.
8. FRAUENFELDER, WILLIAM. "Lessons from the Army Language Courses," *School and Society*, LX (August 19, 1944), 123-24.
9. GREER, THOMAS H. "Educational Lessons from the Air Force," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIX (May, 1944), 224-29.
10. HOOVER, FLOYD W. "Education, 1940 Model or G.I. Style?" *Educational Forum*, IX (March, 1945), 349-54.
11. JOHNSON, ELDON L. "Lessons from Military-sponsored College Training," *Journal of Higher Education*, XVI (March, 1945), 113-20.
12. MAGILL, WALTER H. "War Training and Postwar Education," *Educational Outlook*, XIX (March, 1945), 137-41.
13. MATTHEW, ROBERT JOHN. *Language and Area Studies in the Armed Services: Their Future Significance*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947.
14. MILES, JOHN R., and SPAIN, CHARLES R. *Audio-visual Aids in the Armed Services: Implications for American Education*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947.
15. POSTLE, ARTHUR S. "Conserving Human Resources," *Journal of Higher Education*, XV (November, 1944), 407-12.
16. "Pursuit of Learning Broadcasts: What Can We Learn from G.I. Education?" *Education for Victory*, III (September 20, 1944), 21-24.
17. SCHORLING, RALEIGH, and OTHERS. *Swords into Ploughshares: What Civilian Education Can Learn from the Training Program of the Armed Forces*. Lansing, Michigan: Eugene B. Elliott, Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1946.
18. *Training in the Armed Forces With Special Attention to Implications for Postwar Education in New York City*. Brooklyn, New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1946.
19. TYLER, RALPH W. "What the Schools Can Learn from the Training Programs of the Armed Forces," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (May, 1945), 495-502.
20. YOUNG, CARL HAVEN. "What the Services Teach Us about P.E.," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (January, 1945), 9-15.

## TERMINAL EDUCATION AT THE HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL

S. V. MARTORANA

Research Office, American Association of Junior Colleges, Chicago, Illinois

\*

IN EVERY high school there are usually found two groups of students. One group is made up of young people who plan to go on to college or university and who carry out their plans. The other group is composed of young people who, whether by design or accident of circumstance, finish their full-time institutional education at some point before graduation, or upon graduation, from high school. The high-school programs of the first group of students have come to be designated in the literature as "college-preparatory"; the programs of the second group as "terminal."

### NEED FOR EXPANSION

At present educators and lay groups throughout the nation are much concerned about expanding the educational programs so that they will meet more fully the needs of the terminal students. This interest is desirable in view of the fact that the secondary-school curriculum remains overwhelmingly oriented around the function of preparation for higher education, even though the larger percentage of students in this country, 67 per cent in 1938,<sup>1</sup> do not enter colleges or uni-

versities. The Harvard Committee states the problem candidly:

Instead of looking forward to college, three-fourths of the students now look forward directly to work. Except for a small minority, the high school has therefore ceased to be a preparatory school in the old sense of the word. In so far as it is preparatory, it prepares not for college but for life.<sup>2</sup>

Writing about the problem in the state of Illinois, Frank A. Jensen states:

There is a gap in our educational system in Illinois. Secondary schools prepare roughly 20 per cent of their graduates to continue their studies in colleges and universities. But what of the other 80 per cent?<sup>3</sup>

Figures released in the *Biennial Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois*, by implication, repeat the question. In 1943-44 the enrolment of the public schools of Illinois was 93,178 in Grade VII; for the same year the enrolment in Grade XII was 61,852; and in that year 57,296 students graduated from high school.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *General Education in a Free Society*, p. 8. Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945.

<sup>2</sup> Frank A. Jensen, "The Junior College," *Illinois Education*, XXXV (October, 1946), 40.

<sup>3</sup> *Forty-fifth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illi-*

<sup>4</sup> Computed from data presented in the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1936-1938*, pp. 13, 17. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1940.

Provision of a state-supported system of local public junior colleges, as recommended by the Commission To Survey Higher Educational Facilities in Illinois,<sup>5</sup> would doubtless do much toward furthering the education of students who now terminate their schooling at the high-school level. Such a system of junior colleges would provide educational services for those students who, under existing circumstances, have no available educational opportunity after graduation from high school. As a result, the holding-power of the high schools would be increased. However, these advantages lie in the future. Meanwhile, the existing educational institutions must continue to meet the challenge to provide as fully as possible an educational service which takes account of the needs of all their students.

#### EFFORTS OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE CHICAGO AREA

Until additional educational programs are provided, one of the ways by which to serve students who do not continue in higher education is to offer, in the public high school, courses or curriculums which are organized and presented to meet the

particular needs of such students. This education will be truly "terminal" because it will provide training and learning experiences for these students during the last part of their full-time institutional schooling and will be specifically designed to help them meet the problems and conditions of the adult world.

In November, 1946, the Judd Club, a professional study-group of secondary-school administrators in the Chicago area, carried out an investigation to determine the status of terminal education at the high-school level in the schools under their jurisdiction. For the purposes of the study, "terminal education" was defined as that type of education which is best suited to meet the cultural, civic, vocational, and personal needs of students who complete their education at the end of the school level in which they are presently enrolled. This definition was used because it provided for the inclusion of courses which are offered to equip students to meet their social, civic, and personal needs as well as their vocational and economic demands. The results of the study were presented to the members of the organization and discussed at a meeting held November 12, 1946.

Table 1 shows the types of schools which participated in the study. The types of school organization and the range of enrolment in the schools make the findings representative of the high-school situation in this metropolitan area.

Five of the school systems which

*nois, July 1, 1942—June 30, 1944, pp. 405, 406. Circular Series A, No. 25. Compiled by L. W. Hinton and Staff, Division of Statistics. Issued by Vernon L. Nickell, Superintendent of Public Instruction. Printed by authority of the State of Illinois.*

<sup>5</sup> *Report of the Commission To Survey Higher Educational Facilities in Illinois*, p. 12. George A. Works, Director of Survey. Printed by authority of the State of Illinois, January, 1945.

participated in this inquiry have become part of the current program of the University of Illinois which was evolved because of the influx of G.I. students and which provides thirteenth-grade work in certain high schools in the state. The work is accepted and accredited by the state university when the student transfers to the higher institution. The purpose of this program is to afford returned veterans and students who finished high school last year a chance to continue their education despite the present restricted opportunities to matriculate at a college or university. This program, therefore, stresses academic and college-preparatory training.

In the five systems which maintain both high schools and junior colleges, the emphasis on terminal education is postponed until Grades XII, XIII, and XIV. The integration of the high school and junior college makes possible the offering of a fuller and sounder training in general education and the provision of exploratory courses in the earlier years. The administrators of these five systems consider that this sound early training, with the later emphasis on terminal offerings immediately preceding the student's entrance into adult activities, gives the fullest advantage to the student.

*Nature of offerings considered "terminal."*—All but one of the thirty-nine schools participating in the study offer courses which are considered terminal in nature. Apparently, however, there is need for clarification of

the type of training that should be given a terminal student to prepare him for full-time participation in adult activities; for an analysis of the courses which were listed as "terminal" indicates that virtually any course can be so construed. Evidence for this statement is found in the fact that 131 courses offered at the

TABLE 1

TYPES, NUMBER, AND ENROLMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS CO-OPERATING IN THE STUDY OF TERMINAL EDUCATION

Grade Organization	Number of Schools	Range in Enrolment
Grades VII-XII.....	6	285-3,044
Grades VII-IX.....	1	800
Grades X-XII.....	3	859-1,791
Grades IX-XII.....	19	275-3,050
Grades IX-XIII*.....	5	.....
Grades IX-XII.....	.....	950-2,500
Grade XIII.....	.....	63-154
Grades IX-XIV*.....	5	.....
Grades IX-XII.....	.....	605-4,551
Grades XIII-XIV.....	.....	136-858
Total.....	39	.....

\*The enrolments in these schools are divided to show the number of students in Grades IX-XII, the traditional high-school years, and the number of students above Grade XII.

seventh- to twelfth-grade level were listed as "terminal." The subjects named by ten or more schools indicate that the greatest agreement exists with respect to those courses which have been traditionally considered as job-preparation, or vocational, courses. These courses and the frequency of mention of each are: type-writing, twenty-six; shorthand, twenty-five; foods, fifteen; clothing, fourteen; woodworking, twelve; machine

shop, twelve; office practice, ten; and mechanical drawing, ten. Although courses that contribute to the social, civic, and personal adjustment of the terminal student were listed in great variety, the frequency of mention of each offering was low. Only in the case of English did more than five respondents agree.

TABLE 2  
FACTORS DETERRING THE EXPANSION  
OF TERMINAL OFFERINGS AT  
HIGH-SCHOOL LEVEL

DETECTING FACTOR	SCHOOLS INDICATING THIS FACTOR	
	Num-ber	Per Cent*
Inadequate physical plant facilities.....	27	69
Difficulty in obtaining qualified teachers.....	18	46
Inadequate financial support from local sources.....	16	41
Inadequate financial support from the state.....	11	28
Lack of demand for terminal education in the community.....	11	28
Other factors.....	4	10

\* This column does not add up to 100 per cent because more than one factor was often indicated by the same respondent.

Lack of a clear conception of the training that should be provided for the terminal student is also indicated in the comments given in the inquiry form pertaining to the content, the organization, and the methods of presentation which differentiate terminal from college-preparatory courses. In the case of content the two items mentioned frequently enough to be given significance are:

1. The content of "terminal" courses is more closely adapted to practical life situations and has less theoretical consideration. [This statement was subscribed to by sixteen respondents.]

2. The content of "terminal" offerings is pointed specifically toward job preparation and placement. [This statement was agreed to by nine respondents.]

Consensus of opinion concerning the organization of terminal courses occurs only on the point that these courses are adapted to the interests and ability levels of the students. In eight schools an attempt is made to employ the technique of student grouping in the organization of terminal courses. Fourteen schools indicated that, in the presentation of the course material, more use is made of "practical life situations" in the terminal than in the preparatory courses; six schools held that there are more informality and more discussion in the classes; and six schools indicated greater use of individual instruction in the classroom situation. There is a striking lack of effort looking toward determination of social, civic, and personal needs peculiar to the terminal student and utilization of such information in planning terminal courses.

*Factors deterring expansion of terminal education at the high-school level.*

—One of the items of the inquiry form asked the heads of the schools to indicate the factors which hindered expansion of offerings designed to train the terminal student. Table 2 summarizes the factors that were mentioned.

Emphasis on the need for better



plant facilities and for increased financial support again indicates the prevalence of the concept that terminal education stresses job-preparation and vocational courses, since such offerings demand special rooms and equipment. These items would not be stressed so greatly if greater cognizance were taken of the fact that offerings which meet the personal and cultural demands of students not expecting to enter college could be given by teachers of the traditional academic subjects in conventional classrooms.

At the meeting at which the results of the study were discussed, the factor of qualifications of teachers was clarified. Again, the traditional view of terminal education as training for job and vocational duties was brought out. In the discussion, however, considerable concern was evidenced over the fact that many teachers of general academic subjects are so bound by the college-preparatory function of the courses that it is difficult for them to perceive the role which their course offerings could play in meeting the needs of the terminal student. A new conception of the role of service of the secondary-school appears sorely needed, with respect to both the vocational and the general subject-matter areas.

Among the "Other factors" indicated as deterring influences were lack of an "integrating philosophy of education," failure of students to elect the courses offered, and lack of understanding on the part of both parent and student of the purpose of these

offerings. These indications have import for guidance functionaries and for public-relations programs in secondary schools.

*Other points brought out by the inquiry.*—The comments added voluntarily by the administrators who submitted reports revealed considerable difference of opinion with regard to the level of education at which terminal courses should be provided. Sixteen respondents thought that there was great need for terminal offerings in Grades IX–XII; four stated that these offerings ought to be restricted to Grades XIII and XIV; the other respondents did not make specific comments on the issue. Arguments were also advanced advocating that terminal offerings at the high-school level should be of the broad preparatory type and should not attempt to provide training for a specific vocation. It was maintained that industry and commerce can quickly develop the specific skills that are needed by the student, provided he comes well grounded in the concepts utilized in industrial or commercial operations.

Voluntary comments also brought out the need for, and difficulty of, providing adequate guidance with respect to terminal offerings. Guidance is necessary to identify the students who will need terminal training because of inability to continue their training in higher educational institutions, to counsel the student concerning the type of preparation that he should complete before leaving school, and to

build parental understanding and student motivation toward the training that is offered. The guidance functionaries, the administration, and the public-relations agencies of the school must co-operate toward this end. The promotion of terminal offerings is complicated by the practice of using them as "dumping grounds," or areas into which the "less able" students are steered. The comments of eight of the administrators indicated this conception of terminal education.

#### CONCLUSIONS

In the meeting at which the results of the study were discussed, there was agreement on three points:

1. Educators feel strongly that there are students who leave school before the completion, or at the completion, of high school with definite and specific needs which have been only meagerly served by the existing educational system.

2. There is need for definition of the problem with respect to the cultural, civic, personal, and vocational needs

of these students and with respect to the discovery and establishment of techniques by which the students can be identified in time to prepare them for effective participation in the pursuits of adult life. The service obligation of the high schools to students who do not go on to higher educational institutions, as well as to students who do, should be popularized. The organization, the content, and the methods of presentation of general academic courses, as well as of courses that have been traditionally considered vocational, should be oriented around this dual service of the high school.

3. Many public-school teachers and a large body of the public need to be informed of the nature of the situation and the implications which it holds for the general welfare. If this is done, the movement to study the problems of terminal education for youth and to provide expanded educational facilities will be given greater encouragement and financial support by local communities and states.

## A REALISTIC VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR GIRLS

ANNA TRAUBERT

Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

★

FOR years, educators have discussed the relative advantages of vocational and academic training. It has been said that training in a vocational school results in limited social mobility, that vocational training means that children of the working class remain in the working class.

The purpose of this paper is to examine practices and outcomes in a small vocational high school for girls in a large industrial city. The paper will consider the questions: What type of girl comes to Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High School in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania? What occupational groups do the students represent? What does the vocational high school do for the pupils who attend? Who succeeds in the school? What type of girl is not interested? What effect does the training given at this vocational school have on the social mobility of its graduates?

In Pittsburgh, an industrial city of 750,000 population, the foreign-born comprise 12 per cent of the population, the Italian and the Polish being the largest ethnic groups. Negroes make up 9 per cent of the population.

The vocational program for girls began in 1926 with the organization of Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High

School. At present there are three vocational high schools for girls, located in three areas of the city. About a thousand girls attend these vocational schools. Any girl who has completed Grade VIII, or who is fourteen years old, or who may profit by trade training is eligible to enter a girls' vocational high school.

A student in Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High School may take trade training in cooking, sewing, and beauty culture. Training in the operation of office machines is offered when the demand is great enough. The pupils in this school devote half of the time to trade training, one-fourth to academic subjects, and one-fourth to subjects related to their trade training. Every girl studies some area of English and social studies each year. Graduates receive both a diploma and a trade certificate. The intelligence quotients of the girls range from 70 to 120, with the average somewhat below 100. The enrolment averages about 200, and the school graduates fifteen or twenty students a year.

### THE SCHOOL EXPLAINS ITS PROGRAM

The principal, Jane C. Bryce, the counselor, and the pupils explain the school's program to the community

and to the other schools. The principal talks to teacher groups, parent-teacher groups, counselors, the Urban League, the Business and Professional Women's Clubs, and the Pittsburgh Personnel Association. The counselor visits the academic high schools, the junior high schools, and the parochial schools to explain the vocational program.

The counselor explains the trades taught at the Vocational High School, the time devoted to the various areas

ing to sew may wear the outfits that they have made and discuss the cost of their clothes in time and money.

A number of girls whose counselors feel that they could profit from vocational training are not interested in going to a vocational high school. The reason most frequently given is that the prestige value of attending an academic high school is greater. On the surface the academic high school offers greater social advantages. They

TABLE 1  
OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS OF GIRLS IN A TYPICAL FRESHMAN CLASS  
IN A GIRLS' VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL IN PITTSBURGH

Occupation	Number of Fathers	Occupation	Number of Fathers
Laborer.....	10	Mill hand.....	1
Factory worker.....	4	Painter.....	1
Butcher.....	2	Railroad-yard worker.....	1
Cook.....	1	Rigger.....	1
Deputy sheriff.....	1	Streetcar conductor.....	1
Electric-plant employee.....	1	Train engineer.....	1
Elevator operator.....	1	Varnish-maker.....	1
Fireman.....	1	None (on relief).....	1
Laundry worker.....	1	Court case (no father).....	3

of learning, the jobs obtained by its graduates, and the possibilities of personal contacts in the school. Pupils go with the counselor to demonstrate the types of work done at the school. A pupil may decorate a cake attractively and quickly and, as she decorates, explain the procedures. She may tell of her work experiences on Saturdays. Another girl may arrange a pupil's hair which previously has been set; or the beauty-culture girl may call for a volunteer from the audience whose hair will be arranged with a French braid. Two or three girls who are learn-

feel, too, that attending an academic high school offers them greater opportunities to meet boys and to participate in activities with them.

#### CHARACTERISTICS OF PUPILS

All girls in the Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High School are native-born. About 30 per cent come from families with Slavic backgrounds, and 8 per cent are Negroes. A survey of the occupations of the fathers in one entering class revealed that the majority of them are laborers or semi-skilled workers. Table 1 shows the

occupations of the fathers. Four mothers worked away from the home: one as a clerk, one as a cleaner, one in a factory, and one as a maid.

Some families send all their daughters to the Girls' Vocational High School. In the graduating class of 1946 four of the fourteen graduates were sisters of former graduates. A number of girls come to the Vocational High School from parochial schools which have eight-year programs. These girls usually come from homes that are not in a financial position to provide education beyond the high-school level.

About ten or fifteen pupils are court wards, who, because of illness or neglect of the parents, have been placed in foster homes or in homes partially maintained by philanthropic organizations. Social workers make a careful study of the needs and possibilities of the girls. It is necessary for these girls to earn their own living at seventeen, and vocational training offers good preparation.

#### THE SCHOOL'S REALISTIC POLICY

Since the students of the Vocational High School do not expect to go to college, the school trains them for jobs and, in addition, gives them certain social and civic skills. The school faculty does not expect the impossible; they take a most realistic view of the girls and of life. A survey started in the sociology class and extended to all the pupils indicated that the girls were most concerned about the following areas: personal appearance, "dates," marriage, sports, jobs, and education.

The school promotes job effectiveness, citizenship, and personality growth.

*Job effectiveness.*—(1) Since cleanliness is an absolute requisite in work connected with cooking, sewing, and beauty culture, a definite procedure is used to develop this habit. Each pupil in the cooking and beauty-culture laboratories must conform to certain standards. She must wear a clean uniform, white shoes, socks, hose, or "peds." Her hair must be confined by a net. She must use only clear fingernail polish, wear no jewelry, and have no odor. If her uniform is soiled, a girl may use the school facilities for laundry work. The teachers, the principal, the counselor, and pupils carry on the checking for cleanliness. Sometimes it is done by means of a check list; at other times the total effect is noted.

(2) The state law requires that each pupil be given a health examination every other year. A notice of the date of this examination is sent to the home. In order to interest the parents in the follow-up of the medical examination, a special effort is made to induce parents to come to the examination. For example, last year a special note invited the parents of the girls in Grade IX A to come to school and to have lunch there. Thirteen mothers and one father came to the scheduled examinations for the thirty-four pupils in the group, although only one mother came for lunch. A copy of the results of the examination is always given or sent to the parent. The results of this examination may require some adjustments, such as limitation of



swimming privileges, transfer from one trade to another, consultation with a girl's own physician, or correction of eye defects.

The girls who handle food that is sold must have a blood test at the Board of Education Building, just as if they were employed in a commercial food-handling establishment.

Each pupil has the privilege of having dental work done by the school dentist. The principal and the counselor get in touch with the home if the work recommended by the school dentist is beyond the school service. Since beauticians and waitresses should present a pleasing appearance, the completion of any needed dental work is a requirement for graduation. One of the graduates of 1946 had a front denture made, and she worked on Saturdays to pay for this service.

Health habits and sex information receive attention in courses in science, Red Cross nursing, and health and in home-room programs. Girls in the Vocational High School have the following experiences: making a bed safe for a baby by using chairs; planning and cooking diets for patients suffering with various types of diseases; bathing a baby; discussing conception; and seeing pictures of the birth of a child.

(3) Work experience is one of the important opportunities offered at the Vocational High School. More persons telephone the school asking for girls to fill jobs than there are girls to send. The girls have no trouble finding work

after school, on Saturdays, and during vacations. Even during the depression the pupils were employed, and, since they have been trained for special jobs, they are well paid. The school checks with the employer to determine the skill or lack of it exhibited by the girl, and, on the basis of this information, additional training or retraining is given. As a result of suggestions made by merchants, the school has placed more emphasis on the arithmetic needed by salesgirls.

The pupil cashier for the school's tearoom gains experience in meeting and greeting real customers. She makes change and must balance the account as to food served and money collected. The advanced group frequently prepares and serves the refreshments at receptions.

*Citizenship.*—(1) Political education is a part of training for citizenship. There is a school election project in which the students "vote" for city, county, and state officers. The exact procedures of registration and voting in the state are followed. The home rooms, under the leadership of the student council, conduct the election. Previous to the election, pupils discuss candidates and issues. In addition to reporting the results in writing, the school must make a verbal report to the supervisor of citizenship and social studies. The president of the student council makes this verbal report and thus obtains experience in giving exact figures and in supplying all the information which

has been requested. This participation in civic life makes girls sensitive to current civic problems and procedures.

(2) Buying habits are given careful attention. The school develops certain standards in the selection, care, and proper use of food, clothing, and furniture. The purchase, making, and care of a spring suit may be a subject of attention both in the clothing laboratory and in consumer education. The pupil, for example, might consider the fact that striped material makes her look taller or that a smooth-surface fabric presents a different cleaning problem than does a nubby material. The girl is faced with the problem of making the dress and considering the cost of the article in relation to its value for her.

(3) The community offers much to its people without individual cost. The vocational school trains its girls to use and enjoy these community resources. For example, when the girls go to the Board of Education building for blood tests, the principal frequently allows extra time to enable them to see a current flower exhibition at the near-by conservatory, the art display at the neighboring museum, or the oriental cherry trees in the adjoining park. Groups from the Girls' Vocational High School go to the museums, to the planetarium, and to store displays. Recently a group of pupils enjoyed a fabric display at one of the large department stores. Publicity is given to announcements sent to the

school concerning such community activities as open-air concerts, community dancing, Y.W.C.A. programs, parades, and summer camps.

*Personality growth.*—(1) Since Irwin Avenue Vocational High School is a small school, a great number of the pupils take part in all activities. The theme of the commencement program for 1946 was "The United Nations," and about thirty-five pupils did the chorus work while the graduates had the leading parts. In 1945 the graduation program included a historical play, in which fifteen of the pupils, not graduates, took the part of Indians standing about in the William Penn scene. These experiences give the girls the sense of belonging and the feeling of being at home on the stage before commencement night.

The girls enjoy the satisfaction of participation and recognition. A definite effort is made to give each girl the opportunity to serve as chairman of some committee, to participate in an assembly program, and to plan home-room activities. Any excellence is recognized. The girl who has made the French pastry for a party carries the tray of gaily decorated and artistically cut cakes to the different classrooms for the pupils and teachers to admire. Perhaps the girl who made an outfit from her brother's suit may explain the process to her home-room group. In such ways the girls experience the satisfaction of achievement. Recently a noted cartoonist of the community attended a tea at which was served

some cake that had been made at the school. A note written to the teacher by the hostess, in which she said that the noted person had enjoyed the cake, was posted on the bulletin board for the entire class to read and enjoy.

(2) The world recognizes the importance of suitable dress, gracious manners, and good posture. Science classes and home-room groups walk through the halls and up and down the stairs with books on their heads. To determine whether they stand straight, the girls and teacher line up against the wall to see whether they can touch the wall at the shoulders and waistline. If not, the health-education, the English, or the science teacher will suggest ways of improvement. Demonstrations are given of the easy and graceful way of seating one's self.

(3) Since society recognizes certain types of dress as suitable for different occasions, the school treats the question of dress and good grooming in a realistic manner. Pupils must wear uniforms in cooking and beauty-culture classes, but they may wear their own school dresses in the academic classrooms. Demonstrations are given of the proper type of clothing to wear when applying for work. At the fashion shows of the clothing made during the year, appropriate dress for social occasions, the beach, the office, the factory, the home, and the school is shown.

Good grooming is encouraged at the school. The pupils may go to the school beauty parlor for manicures, permanents, and hair sets, without

cost. They may freely use the school shower baths, the automatic washing machine, and the electric irons.

(4) All classes in the school stress kindly and gracious methods of greeting people. English classes and home-room programs are planned to suggest methods of suitable and audible speech in greeting employers, employees, friends, acquaintances, newcomers, and definite instruction is given on behavior during interviews. Acceptable manners at the table are demonstrated and discussed. Care is taken here to show that the forms demonstrated are not absolute.

(5) The girls are encouraged to give written expression to their fundamental kindly spirit. When someone extends a courtesy to a group at this school, a "thank-you" note is sent by an appointed pupil. For example, not long ago a teacher from another school arranged seats for a group of girls at a concert. One of the girls, at the suggestion of the group, wrote the teacher a note thanking her for the courtesy.

#### SOCIAL MOBILITY OF FORMER STUDENTS

Data were obtained which throw light on the social mobility of the girls who have attended Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High School. Table 2, giving the occupations of 145 recent students, indicates that there has been some mobility up the occupational ladder. Several of the graduates have excellent-paying jobs. One owns two beauty shops and clears \$120 a week. This income enables her to have a nice

apartment, purchase attractive clothing, own a car, buy concert and lecture tickets. She goes to the beauty-culture conventions and has joined a woman's club. She has obviously moved into the lower-middle class in the social scheme.

Social mobility for these girls is possible, also, through marriage. Several of the girls, by reason of their good looks, their native charm, their good grooming, and perhaps their middle-

Irwin Avenue Girls' Vocational High School is the solid, substantial girl, who is willing to profit from, and take advantage of, the disciplines demanded by vocational education. However, for certain girls this is not the best program. It is not the most effective program for girls who have a great deal of ambition and who have high verbal intelligence. It is not for girls who lack stability of character and home discipline. Frequently girls, pre-

TABLE 2  
OCCUPATIONS OF 145 FORMER STUDENTS OF A GIRLS'  
VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL IN PITTSBURGH

Occupation	Number of Former Students	Occupation	Number of Former Students
Girls holding sewing jobs.....	25	Factory worker.....	2
Waitress.....	23	Food demonstrator.....	2
Beauty operator.....	22	Tearoom hostess.....	2
Housewife (married or at parents' home).....	20	Telephone operator.....	2
Salesgirl.....	20	Beauty-culture teacher.....	1
Owner of beauty shop.....	12	Manager of sewing-room.....	1
Stenographer or operator of office machines.....	12	Student for missionary field.....	1

class manners or values learned at the Girls' Vocational High School, have made marriages with men who have higher economic and social standing than their own. For instance, one girl married an Italian fruit merchant several years older than she. Her husband owns his business, has taken some business training, and belongs to a lodge. They have a comfortable six-room house and an automobile. Their child was born in a hospital. In all probability, their children will go a step higher in the social scale.

The type of girl who succeeds at

referring to gamble on good looks or on attractiveness to boys, decide to go to a coeducational school rather than make the surer choice of the vocational school. Often they lose the gamble. Jane and Patsy are two girls who went a year to the Girls' Vocational High School and then decided to transfer to a coeducational academic high school. To the counselor they explained that life was not interesting at the vocational school, that they wanted more social life and wanted to be where there were boys. Jane was one of a large family, none of whom had gradu-

ated from high school. Patsy was a court ward and had lived in a succession of foster homes. Both girls had intelligence quotients above 100. Both girls were friendly but "light-headed," and they disliked the routines of the vocational school.

If the Girls' Vocational High School gave girls nothing but economic skills, it would be only partially successful. A further question must be asked: Does the school give girls a chance to succeed in other areas as happier and better adjusted persons? Like any good school, it gives its pupils opportunity to excel in things for which they receive recognition from adults and

their peer groups. For example, the ability of Jean to make all kinds of stuffed animals may lead to her being selected chairman of the church bazaar. Penny's ability in decorating a cake for any occasion will give her recognition in spheres other than the school group. These are prestige values which satisfy and give a girl a sense of belonging, of contributing to life. It appears that training in this vocational school tends, on the whole, to fit working-class girls for economic and social positions which are similar to those held by their parents but to render them more secure in their positions.



## SELECTED REFERENCES ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

MANDEL SHERMAN AND LEE J. CRONBACH

University of Chicago

\*

THE following bibliography covers the period from January, 1946, to December, 1946, inclusive, with the addition of a few references which appeared late in 1945 and early in 1947.

### GENERAL AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSIONS

388. JONES, H. E. "The Educational Psychology of Persons," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXVII (December, 1946), 513-26.

A review of trends in research interest, with emphasis on the need for studies and teaching which stress the development of the individual child as a whole.

389. KINGSLEY, H. L. *The Nature and Conditions of Learning*. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1946. Pp. xvi+580.

A valuable advanced textbook drawing heavily on laboratory studies which investigate specific aspects of learning theory.

### LEARNING

390. BLOOM, BENJAMIN S. "Implications of Problem-solving Difficulties for Instruction and Remediation," *School Review*, LV (January, 1947), 45-49.

An attempt to diagnose and remedy poor reasoning habits is reported briefly.

391. GUTHRIE, EDWIN RAY, and HORTON, G. P. *Cats in a Puzzle Box*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. 68.

A detailed study of problem-learning behavior of cats which demonstrates that specific habits rather than insight appear to be the basis for improvement.

392. JOHNSON, WENDELL. *People in Quantities: The Semantics of Personal Ad-*

*justment*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xiv+532.

A discussion for the educator and the general reader of the role of verbal confusion in reading maladjustment. Suggestions for improving communication and a summary of research on language behavior are given.

393. ROBINSON, FRANCIS P. *Effective Study*. (Revised edition of *Diagnostic and Remedial Techniques for Effective Study*.) New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. x+262.

A revision of Robinson's workbook for assisting college students to improve their work. There are sections which discuss learning methods.

394. WERTHEIMER, MAX. *Productive Thinking*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1945. Pp. xii+224.

A report of studies of how children solve problems. The effect of special help by the teacher as a way to induce insight is tested.

395. WOLFLE, DAEL L. "Military Training and the Useful Parts of Learning Theory," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, X (March, 1946), 73-75.

Reports experience during World War II in which psychologists were able to improve training procedures by application of experimentally established principles of learning.

396. WOODROW, HERBERT. "The Ability To Learn," *Psychological Review*, LIII (May, 1946), 147-58.

The author reviews studies of improvement with practice and establishes a theoretical meaning for the ability to learn. The factors which are related to learning ability are discussed.

## INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

397. CRAWFORD, ALBERT BEECHER, and BURNHAM, P. S. *Forecasting College Achievement: A Survey of Aptitude Tests for Higher Education. Part I: General Considerations in the Measurement of Academic Promise.* Louis Stern Memorial Fund. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1946. Pp. xx+292.

A discussion of the weaknesses of present plans for measuring aptitude, with consideration of a battery of tests for establishing a profile of abilities.

398. FINCH, FRANK HERSCHEL. *Enrolment Increases and Changes in the Mental Level of the High-School Population.* American Psychological Association, Applied Psychology Monograph, No. 10. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1946. Pp. 76.

A study of test data gathered over a period of twenty years which indicates that pupils today, despite more democratic representation, are somewhat brighter than formerly.

399. PRESSEY, S. L. "Age of College Graduation and Success in Adult Life," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXX (June, 1946), 226-33.

A study of the effect of early graduation on adult achievement. Based on full records of Amherst graduates dating back to 1880.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT<sup>1</sup>

400. COLE, LUELLA. *The Elementary School Subjects.* New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. xxii+456.

An evaluation of the psychology of elementary-school subjects, with special emphasis on the problem of motivation and

what the teacher can do to increase children's motivational drives to learn.

401. GESELL, ARNOLD, and ILG, FRANCES L. *The Child from Five to Ten.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xii+476.

An analysis of the developmental problems of children from five to ten, with many illustrations from observation and experimental investigation.

402. KNEZEVICH, STEPHEN J. "The Constancy of the IQ of the Secondary School Pupil," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXIX (March, 1946), 506-16.

An investigation was made of the constancy of the intelligence of secondary-school pupils. The conclusion was reached that the intelligence quotient is constant, except for unreliability of the tests or other extraneous factors.

403. MARTENS, ELSIE H. *Curriculum Adjustments for Gifted Children.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 1, 1946. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1946. Pp. vi+82.

A discussion of the methods of dealing with gifted children in the classroom. An important contribution, since most of the literature for teachers deals with suggestions regarding the treatment of retarded or average children.

404. SCHLESSER, GEORGE E. "Development of Special Abilities at the Junior High School Age," *Journal of Educational Research*, XL (September, 1946), 39-51.

A study of the special abilities of junior high school pupils and the methods of identifying these abilities.

405. STEVENSON, ELIZABETH. *Home and Family Life Education in Elementary Schools.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1946. Pp. viii+310.

A book directed to administrators, teachers, and supervisors at the elementary-school level. Gives concrete suggestions regarding developmental programs for children and is especially directed toward

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 123 (Pasamanick) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 161 (Adams), Item 177 (Peller), and Item 186 (Anderson) in the April, 1947, number of the same journal.

1947]

the development of a wider program of education for children.

406. THORPE, LOUIS P. *Child Psychology and Development*. New York: Ronald Press, 1946. Pp. 782.

A modern presentation of the problems of child psychology and development, especially suited for classroom use and for the training of teachers in service.

#### PERSONALITY\*

407. ADAM, JEAN. "An Inquiry into the Influence of Broken Homes on the Maladjustment of Children," *British Journal of Psychology*, XVI (February, 1946), 45.

The influence of broken homes on the adjustment of children was investigated by comparing two groups of children. The result indicated that, in the past, broken homes have been considered more serious than the findings justify.

408. BERGMAN, PAUL. "Neurotic Anxieties in Children and Their Prevention," *Nervous Child*, V (January, 1946), 37-55.

Presents an analysis of the mechanisms of fear and anxiety of children and an evaluation of the methods of teachers and parents in helping these children overcome their neurotic symptoms.

\* See also Item 493 (Wofford) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1946, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 186 (Anderson) in the April, 1947, number of the same journal.

409. DUNLAP, KNIGHT. *Personal Adjustment*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. xii+446.

A discussion of the various theories of the development of personality and an evaluation of the experimental material of the problems of personal adjustment.

410. GLUECK, BERNARD. *Current Therapies of Personality Disorders*. New York: Grune & Stratton, Inc., 1946. Pp. 300.

Contains a number of chapters by various authors regarding the current methods of observation and treatment of personality problems. The various methods in current use are also analyzed.

411. JONES, HAROLD E. "Physical Ability as a Factor in Social Adjustment in Adolescence," *Journal of Educational Research*, XL (December, 1946), 287-301.

A study of the relation between physical ability and social adjustment. The effect of the individual's interpretation of his physical competence is analyzed.

412. NEWMAN, FRANCES BURKS. *The Adolescent in Social Groups*. American Psychological Association, Applied Psychology Monograph, No. 9. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1946. Pp. 94.

A report of the methods of observation and of the recording of the behavior of adolescents. Methods are given also for the rating of adolescents and the interpretation of their behavior.

# Educational Writings

\*

## REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

**THE WORK AND WORTH OF AMERICA'S SCHOOLS.**—The American experiment in extending universal education to the higher levels of instruction has long been recognized as a potent factor in the continuing progress of this country and of its people in the direction of social and economic well-being. In the administration of educational programs in the American states, it has been the tradition to survey and appraise these programs from time to time for the sake of perspective and guidance in planning the future course of the schools. An example of such interpretation of the purposes and achievements of the American schools is provided in a volume<sup>1</sup> recently published by one of the publicly supported higher institutions in the Middle West.

Noting the spectacular marshaling of this nation's human and material resources in preparation for the war and in the prosecution of the conflict, the authors of this volume explain these achievements as the product of a system of education in which there is no denial of educational opportunity in terms of social and economic classification of segments of the population. The first half of the book, including nine chapters, deals with the procedures and the results of an appraisal of the school systems of the states in terms of selected criteria of accomplishment, financial resources, effort, and efficiency in management. The last of the chapters concerned with the evaluation of the school systems presents the results of the over-all appraisal in the familiar form of a ranking of the forty-

eight states on the basis of educational performance. The component factors in these ratings include a measure of the degree of accomplishment in relation to financial ability to support the school system and an index of the level of education of the adult population. In light of the results of numerous earlier reports based on measures of different aspects of educational systems, the comment of the authors of this report is probably as significant as can be offered. In viewing the results of their own work, they say, "The state-by-state ranking yields many surprises" (p. 87).

In the latter half of the volume, consideration is given to certain educational problems which are viewed as vital to the continuing progress of American schools toward better performance and wider serviceability. The educational implications of interstate migration are clearly indicated; the responsibility of the federal government with respect to adequate support for education in economically handicapped states is fairly characterized in relation both to the needs of the population of school age in general and to the unique requirements of the Negro population; and the problem of the schools with reference to training for leadership in a democratic society is explained. Additional chapters discuss the education of women, the junior-college movement, and the major aims of education as commonly conceived. This volume constitutes a substantial review and discussion of conditions and achievements that may be taken as the measure of educational progress at the present time.

NELSON B. HENRY

University of Chicago

<sup>1</sup> Raymond M. Hughes and William H. Lancelot, *Education: America's Magic*. Ames, Iowa: Iowa State College Press, 1946. Pp. x+190. \$2.50.

**OUR LATIN-AMERICAN NEIGHBORS.**—The successes of the German and the Japanese armies early in World War II forced the United States to seek new sources for raw materials. As a result, our trade with Latin America was increased manifold, and co-operation among the nations of the Western Hemisphere was fostered. The United States has been striving for this co-operation for many years, and it must not be allowed to lapse now that the binding force of war has been removed. A recent textbook<sup>1</sup> has as its aim the fostering of better co-operation through the development of proper attitudes of appreciation and understanding of the many phases of life in our neighboring republics. If our Good Neighbor policy is to be anything but benign complacency, it must be based on a complete understanding of the customs and the problems of the Latin-American countries. The authors of this book present a survey of the political, economic, and cultural phases of present-day life in these countries, with a historical background sufficient to clarify the salient features of the civilization.

This book was written to serve either as a textbook or as supplementary reading, and its style, vocabulary, and content were selected as suitable for pupils from thirteen to fifteen years of age. Extensive use has been made of pictures, maps, and diagrams. Questions to answer, "Things To Do," and a list of supplementary readings are to be found at the end of each chapter.

The book is divided into seven main parts, which lend themselves readily to the formulation of study topics. Part I gives the reasons for studying about Latin America. Part II presents an overview of the topography, climate, and the peoples and portrays life in the cities and in the rural areas. Part III deals with the historical background, and a discussion of the economic problems and activities is found in Part IV. Part V is con-

cerned with the various governments and their national and international relations. The cultural aspects of life in Latin America are described in Part VI, and general predictions of the place of these republics in the world of the future are made in Part VII.

The historical background covers the ancient Indian civilizations and the periods of exploration, conquest, and colonization. The section on the struggle for independence makes interesting comparisons with our Revolution. Considerable stress is placed on the retardation of the political and economic growth of the various countries as a result of the lack of unification once freedom was won.

Geographical setting, topography, and climatic conditions as controlling factors in the lives and economies of the people are discussed. The wide range of land and climatic conditions found in South and Central America present many problems and have had profound effect on the political, economic, and cultural development of these republics.

In the main, South America is one of the last great regions of virtually untouched natural resources. The development of these resources has been slow and largely controlled by outside interests. Exports have been primarily agricultural products and raw materials. Portions of the book point out the dislocation of the economies which resulted when the beginning of World War II disrupted the normal marketing channels. Demands grew for certain of the raw materials, while others, such as coffee, were not moved because of the lack of shipping. The United States saw fit to pour large sums of money into these republics for the development of manufacturing facilities which had been hitherto virtually nonexistent. The war had profound effects on the growth of these countries, and the results will be evident for a long time to come.

Of primary importance is the section of the book devoted to the governments of the republics. It is pointed out that, upon the winning of independence, each country placed its government in the hands of its

<sup>1</sup> Russell H. Fitzgibbon and Flaud C. Wooton, *Latin America: Past and Present*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946. Pp. x+470. \$2.20.



military leaders. These men were usually not good administrators, and several assumed the role of dictators. Excellent explanations of the factors which have led to the numerous revolts are provided. Major consideration is also given to the problems which have kept co-operation among all the republics of the Western Hemisphere from developing faster.

While a united world is still a dim future

hope, the Good Neighbor Policy, Pan-Americanism, and hemispheric co-operation are realities now. Our cultural and economic relations with Latin America have been improving rapidly, but, if our relations with these republics are to continue to grow, we must develop proper attitudes of sympathy and understanding toward their problems.

JAMES H. MAILEY

Chicago, Illinois

\*

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

ALSCHULER, ROSE H., and HATTWICK, LA BERTA WEISS. *Painting and Personality: A Study of Young Children*. Vol. I, pp. xii+264; Vol. II, pp. vi+265-590. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1947. \$10.00.

BENJAMIN, HAROLD. *Under Their Own Command: Observations on the Nature of a People's Education for War and Peace*. The Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1947. Pp. viii+88. \$1.50.

COLE, LUELLE, and MORGAN, JOHN J. B. *Psychology of Childhood and Adolescence*. New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. xii+416. \$3.50.

GORDAN, IAN A. *The Teaching of English: A Study in Secondary Education*. Educational Research Series No. 27. Wellington, New Zealand: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1947. Pp. 136.

RODGERS, CLEVELAND. *American Planning: Past-Present-Future*. New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1947. Pp. xiv+290. \$3.00.

*Schools for a New World*. Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington 6: American Association of School Administrators, 1947. Pp. 448. \$2.50.

### BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

AMES, MERLIN M., and KINKEAD, EVALYN BAYLE. *Activity Book To Accompany "America Heir of Yesterday"*. St. Louis 3: Webster Publishing Co., 1947. Pp. ii+94. \$0.36.

BARNES, GRACE. *General American Speech Sounds*. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946. Pp. vi+130. \$1.80.

BATH, GERALD HORTON. *America's Williamsburg*. Why and how the historic Capital of Virginia, oldest and largest of England's thirteen American colonies, has been restored to its Eighteenth Century appearance by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. Williamsburg, Virginia: Colonial Williamsburg, Inc., 1946. \$0.65.

BISHOP, MERRILL, and MACDONALD, ZULA ZON. *Frieda through the Bookshelf*. Austin, Texas: Steck Co., 1946. Pp. viii+120+test.

CARMER, CARL. *For the Rights of Men*. New York: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge, Inc., 1947. Pp. 64. \$2.00.

DICKENS, CHARLES. *Oliver Twist*. Adapted by MABEL DODGE HOLMES and edited by GRACE A. BENSCOTER. New York 11: College Entrance Book Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. xvi+336. \$1.53.

GRAY, WILLIAM S., MONROE, MARION, and ARBUTHNOT, MAY HILL. *Guidebook for*

- "*Paths and Pathfinders*," Basic Readers: Teachers Edition, Book 7, pp. 528, \$1.64; *Think-and-Do-Book To Accompany "Paths and Pathfinders*," Basic Readers, Book 7, pp. 96, \$0.48. Chicago 5: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1946.
- GRAY, WILLIAM S., POOLEY, ROBERT C., and WALCOTT, FRED G. *Wonders and Workers*. Basic Readers: Curriculum Foundation Series, Book 8. Chicago 5: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1946. Pp. 544. \$1.68.
- HANSEN, HAROLD A., HERNDON, JOHN G., and LANGSDORF, WILLIAM B. *Fighting for Freedom*. Historic Documents Selected and Edited with Interpretive Comments. Philadelphia 7: John C. Winston Co., 1947. Pp. x+502.
- KOITTE, EDWARD A. *Jobs and Small Businesses*. Yonkers-on-Hudson 5, New York: World Book Co., 1947 (school edition). Pp. 128. \$1.00.
- MARTIN, LAURA KATHERINE. *Magazines for School Libraries*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co., 1947 (revised). Pp. 202. \$1.90.
- MONRO, KATE M. *A Workbook Course in Business English*, pp. viii+172, \$1.40; *Accomplishment Tests for a Workbook Course in Business English*, pp. 14. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947.
- Our World of Science: Book VII, *Going Forward with Science* by GERALD S. CRAIG and JUNE E. LEWIS, pp. 414, \$1.56; Book VIII, *Science Plans for Tomorrow* by GERALD S. CRAIG and JOHN URBAN, pp. 448, \$1.72. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1946 and 1947.
- PRESTWOOD, ELWOOD L. *Practice in English: A Workbook in Fundamentals*. Edited by BERTHA HANDLAN. Boston 7: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947. Pp. iv+284+tests. \$0.92.
- SONDEL, BESS. *Are You Telling Them? How To Converse Well and Make Speeches*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947. Pp. xvi+292. \$2.95.
- VAN TIL, WILLIAM. *Economic Roads for American Democracy*. Sponsored by the Consumer Education Study, National Association of Secondary-School Principals. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. x+252. \$1.80.
- PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM
- ANDERSON, HAROLD H., BREWER, JOSEPH E., and REED, MARY FRANCES. *Studies of Teachers' Classroom Personalities, III: Follow-up Studies of the Effects of Dominative and Integrative Contacts on Children's Behavior*. Applied Psychology Monographs, No. 11. Stanford University, California: Published for the American Psychological Association by Stanford University Press, 1946. Pp. 156. \$2.00.
- BLAINE, ANITA; CASSELS, EDWIN H.; EMBREE, EDWIN R.; WAYMACK, W. W.; and WRIGHT, QUINCY. *The World at the Crossroads*. Chicago: World Citizens Association, 1946. Pp. 160. \$0.25.
- CIVIL AERONAUTICS ADMINISTRATION, LIBRARY. "Aeronautical Periodicals." Washington 25: Department of Commerce, 1946. Pp. 7 (mimeographed).
- CIVIL AERONAUTICS ADMINISTRATION, OFFICE OF AVIATION TRAINING. "A Selected and Annotated Bibliography in Aviation Education for Guidance Counselors," pp. 10 (mimeographed); "A Selected and Annotated Bibliography on the Social, Political, Economic, and International Aspects of Aviation," pp. 65 (mimeographed). Washington 25: Department of Commerce, 1946.
- Directory of Free and Inexpensive Aviation Education Materials*. Prepared by School and College Service of United Air Lines. Chicago 23: United Air Lines, Inc., 1947. Pp. 16.
- Gold Star List of American Fiction: Six Hundred and Eighty Titles 1823 to 1947*. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse Public Library, 1947. Pp. 50. \$0.50.
- Guiding the Child's Understanding and Use of Mathematics*. Prepared under the Direc-

- tion of the Arithmetic Steering Committee. River Forest, Illinois: Board of Education, 1947. Pp. 32.
- HUXLEY, JULIAN. *UNESCO: Its Purpose and Its Philosophy*. Washington 8: Public Affairs Press (2153 Florida Avenue), 1947. Pp. 62. \$1.00.
- Institute of International Education: Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Director*. Bulletin No. 1. New York 19: Institute of International Education, Inc. (2 West Forty-fifth Street), 1946. Pp. 98. \$0.10.
- A *Key to Better Education*. A Guide to School District Reorganization based on the forthcoming report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization. Washington 6: National Commission on School District Reorganization (1201 Sixteenth Street), 1947. Pp. 16. \$0.15.
- MILES, JOHN R., and SPAIN, CHARLES R. *Audio-visual Aids in the Armed Services: Implications for American Education*. For the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xii+96. \$1.25.
- 1946 Fall Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies*. Educational Records Bulletin, No. 47. New York 19: Educational Records Bureau, 1947. Pp. x+58.
- Public School Buildings in Owensboro, Kentucky*. A Survey Report Prepared by the Bureau of School Service. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XIX, No. 2. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1946. Pp. 68. \$0.50.
- A *Study of Stillman Institute, a Junior College for Negroes*. Conducted by the Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Alabama. Edited by PAUL W. TERRY. Studies in Education, No. 8. University of Alabama Bulletin, New Series, No. 328. University, Alabama: Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Alabama, 1946. Pp. xxx+304.
- The United Nations in Films*. A Catalogue of 16 and 35 MM Films Distributed in the U.S.A. Issued by United Nations Department of Public Information. New York: Films and Visual Information Division, United Nations Department of Public Information, 1947. Pp. iii+77.

Edu-  
New  
ureau,

*Ken-*  
by the  
of the  
k, No.  
Edu-  
6. Pp.

*r Col-*  
ureau  
Edu-  
ted by  
ation,  
lletin,  
Ala-  
earch,  
f Ala-

gue of  
in the  
epart-  
York:  
vision,  
lic In-